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ABSTRACT

This collection of papers, the fifth in an annual series, presents views of members of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education on improving teaching and learning in higher education settings. Articles and their authors are as follows: "Reflections of a Practitioner: Ten Years of Professional and Organization Development" (William H. Bergquist); "Social Commitment: A Vision for Higher Education" (Sheryl Riechmann Hruska); "Coping with Resistance to Faculty Development" (Jim L. Turner, Robert Boice); "Using Qualitative Methods to Generate Data for Instructional Development" (Donald H. Wulff, Jody D. Nyquist); "Peripheral Programming: An Approach to Faculty Development" (Andy Farquharson); "The Place of Practice-Centered Inquiry in a Faculty Development Program" (Nancy Van Note Chism, Donald P. Sanders); "CIDR: A Small Service Firm Within a Research University" (Jody D. Nyquist); "When Funds Won't Stretch: Faculty and Organizational Development Projects for Minuscule Budgets" (Susanne W. Whitcomb); "Getting Development Underway Through Faculty Involvement" (Dean Hustuft); "Using Interviews in Development Programs for Beginning Teachers" (Lawrence T. McGill, James M. Shaeffer); "Academic Department Chair Training: The Why and The How of It" (Ann F. Lucas); "Learning to Teach in an American Classroom: Narrowing the Culture and Communication Gap for Foreign Teaching Assistants" (Ellen Sarkisian); "Genetics in Jeopardy: The Diagnosis and Treatment of Chronic Disease in an Undergraduate Medical Course - A Case Report" (Richard G. Tiberius, R. J. M. Gold); "Teaching the Introductory-Level Course: A Special Challenge" (Delivee L. Wright); "How To Prevent Students" (Linc. Fisch); "Instructional Developers and Instructors as Collaborators in the Oral Presentation Assignment" (Robert L. Flagler, John E. Hamlin); "Tracing Academic Career Paths: Implications for Faculty Development" (Mary Deane Sorcinelli); and "A Survey of Faculty Development Practices" (Glenn Erickson). References follow chapters. Contains title and author indexes. (GLR)

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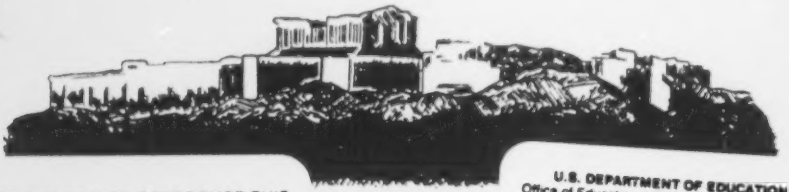

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Resources for Student, Faculty, & Institutional Development

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A Joint Publication of

The Professional & Organizational Development Network in Higher Education

and

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1986

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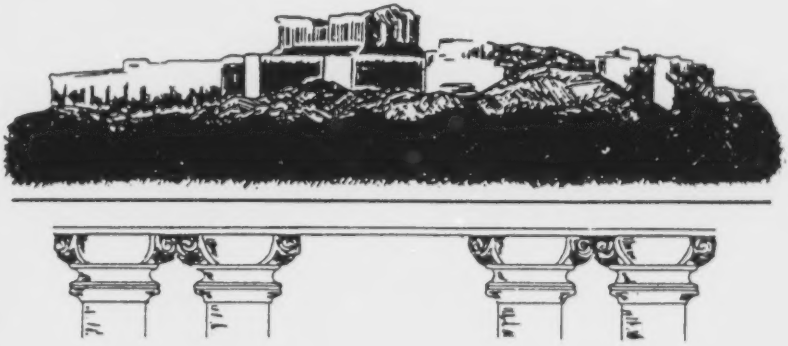

Resources for Student, Faculty, & Institutional Development

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Foreword

This collection of readings is the fifth in an annual series intended as an avenue of sharing for members of the higher education community interested in making teaching and learning at their institutions more effective and fulfilling. It is the first volume to be jointly sponsored by the Professional and Organizational Development (POD) Network in Higher Education and the National Council for Staff, Program and Organizational Development (NCSPOD). These two organizations were formed as support networks for those involved in development efforts at four year colleges and universities (POD) and two year and community colleges (NCSPOD).

Several of the essays in this volume have been developed from sessions presented at the joint conference of the two organizations, held in October of 1985. Others are included for their relevance to the membership. None are copyrighted.

You are encouraged to reproduce and use the material included in this volume. Please feel free to pass it along to others. Our aim is to assist in the development of anyone who has an interest in postsecondary education. Our only request is that you give credit to the authors and this volume and that you communicate your reactions about the material to the authors.

We hope you enjoy this volume. If you find the material intriguing, we invite you to join us in our efforts to explore

this exciting area on a regular basis. For more information about either organization, contact the appropriate officer listed below.

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PART I
REFLECTIONS

In virtually all theories of cognitive development, the higher levels include a capacity to engage in some form of metacognition, the ability to think about thinking, to reflect on actions, to come to some understanding of the reasons for being and doing. From these reflections come learning and further development.

While these theories were formulated to explain the development of individual organisms, they seem to be just as valid in considering the development of multi-individual organisms, such as institutions and professions. The essays included in this section are just such higher order reflections about ourselves, who we were, are and can become. Hopefully, from them will come further learning and development for ourselves as individuals and for our profession.

Reflections of a Practitioner: Ten Years of Professional and Organizational Development[1]

William H. Bergquist
The Professional School of Psychology

SETTING THE STAGE

In preparing for the keynote speech at the Joint 1985 National Conference of the Professional and Organizational Development Network and the National Conference for Staff, Program and Organizational Development, I took on the task of retracing the origins of POD, held at the Wingspread Conference Center. In preparing for this speech, I thought I would recover the original files from that conference which included some presentations on the "future" of professional and organizational development in American higher education and then compare the "prophecies" that were made with what has actually happened in the field during the past ten years.

I never found the files from the Wingspread Conference; however, as I was rummaging through my files, I discovered many other files that attracted my attention and delayed my continuing search for the Wingspread file. These files contained printed materials and personal notes from other projects and articles I was working on ten years ago. These materials and notes told me much about myself and my perspectives at that time. When I reflect back on myself ten years ago, I know that I (like most other people) tend to reconstruct a world that is strongly biased by my current perspective. The actual notes I wrote ten years ago provide a more accurate and at times

surprising picture. In some ways I was smarter ten years ago than I now think I was. In other ways, I was clearly not as wise as I had hoped.

In reflecting on how I have changed over ten years, I began to wonder if the whole field has changed in a similar manner. I recalled an important principle from systems theory suggesting that all or most subsystems tend to echo or mirror the dynamics of the total system. Since I played an important role in the formation of POD and since POD initially had a major influence on my own professional development, then maybe I, as a subsystem of POD, have reflected the major dynamics of POD, the total system. Perhaps some of my issues and life themes are reflected in the organization and in the other individual members of POD and NCSPOD (as an organization that spun off from POD).

I decided in my keynote speech, therefore, to reflect on my own experiences—past, present and future—and to relate these experiences to POD, NCSPOD and the fields of professional and organization development. I ask you, the reader, to reflect in a similar manner on your own experiences as a practitioner. To what extent do the themes I have identified for my own professional life relate to your concerns and transitions?

THEME ONE: CONFORMITY vs. INNOVATION

In rummaging through my files, I discovered the Masters Thesis that I wrote in 1967. It was a traditional work—uninteresting, but acceptable to my graduate institution and published in a good disciplinary journal. I also discovered a Masters Thesis written during the previous year (1966). This thesis was not accepted by my committee and was certainly not going to be published in a traditional journal. After almost twenty years, I reread this unacceptable thesis and found it to be interesting, provocative and certainly a much better piece of research than was found in my published thesis.

I looked at both of these works with the painful realization that I still find myself often caught between respectable, acceptable conformity and my more unacceptable creativity and insight. I work within the system, as do most "successful" professional and organization development practitioners, yet in many ways I am seeking to change the system or at least am

not terribly comfortable living in it.

I keep wondering if I will be found out by those people who hire me.[2] When will they come to realize that I actually want to transform—or even tear down—the institution that they want me to help patch up ("develop")? Are they, perhaps, just as dissatisfied with the current system as I am? If so, are we playing an unnecessary (or necessary) charade?

The formation of POD was itself a blend of the traditional and nontraditional. The birth of this organization was dependent on the initial support of two men who led major, traditional national associations in American higher education: Dyck Vermillye (American Association for Higher Education) and Gary Quehl (Council of Independent Colleges—then the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges). Both Vermillye and Quehl are exceptional leaders: visionaries who knew how to work within the system and get the resources that are necessary to bring about nontraditional reform and development.

The fields of professional and organization development are similarly replete with contradictions regarding conformity and innovation. The early programs in faculty development, for instance, were dependent on funds from traditional, corporate foundations (such as the Lilly Endowment and Kellogg Foundation). Later, hard money support became more prevalent. In the latter case, the reform efforts of faculty development practitioners were funded by the very institutions that the practitioners sought to reform. We must look for our support—even our "mentors"—from among men and women who are in positions of power and understandably have their own vested interests and their own blind spots with regard to the need for change and reform in their specific domain.

Yet, POD is a counter-movement. We support innovation, new ideas and change. In the early 1970s, we offered a critique of the dominant academic culture and its emphasis on research (rather than teaching) (Sanford, 1971; Astin, et al., 1974). Our efforts, however, often have not been successful, precisely because we must rely on the traditional establishment for our resources and because significant change is always a slow and unpredictable process. We are discouraged or at least ambivalent about our efforts and our successes.[3]

THEME TWO: ROLE OF THE "ENEMY"

In reviewing various papers I wrote in the late 1960s and early 1970s, I was immediately struck with the role played by the "enemy" in my life. I often seemed to need an adversary in order to give my noble cause some focus and direction. The enemy, however, often seemed to be rather diffuse in character and disposition. The enemy was the government, the dominant academic culture, the traditional universities and the traditional faculty. I wrote with disdain about faculty obsessions regarding publications and academic standards, about limited curricular visions and about the indifference of faculty and administrators in most traditional institutions to teaching and learning issues.

Yet, I also recall a disturbing experience from the early 1970s that called into question many of my pat ideas about the enemy. I was conducting a workshop for faculty from a prestigious private university. One of the participants spoke about his conservatism, with reference to personal life style as well as politics. He noted that he found great satisfaction sitting alone and very still in his den surrounded by relics of the past. He said that he was a very "closed" person and did not readily disclose personal matters to other people until he knew them for an extended period of time. This statement struck me as poignant and ironic, for it was in many ways the most honest and "open" statement made during the entire workshop. The rest of us had mastered the art of being "open" without actually revealing that which was most intimate and difficult for us to reveal. This "conservative" faculty member took a greater risk than the rest of us in talking about his "closedness" and in violating the norms by being conservative and interpersonally fearful. He was the personification of the "enemy," yet I found myself admiring him much more than my more liberal and liberated faculty colleagues (or myself, for that matter). The enemy had become a person I liked. I fear that this often is the case. A friend of mine, who is a strong political activist, recently expressed a similar sentiment when she noted that she avoids getting to know people who are on opposite sides of the issue from her because then she loses the capacity to be angry about and to take action against these people.

Yet, is there really a need for an enemy? Carl Jung would

suggest that as we mature as individuals (or even as a society) we become more accommodating to our enemies (our "shadow," in Jungian terms). We welcome the enemy to our home, for we realize that the enemy is a part of us, that we must recognize the enemy that exists within us. In our early years, the enemy is essential to the formation of our identity and our competency, for the enemy usually holds at least part of the truth about ourselves and our world. Our immature values are usually based as much on what we don't believe and don't accept as on what we do believe and do find acceptable.

Am I becoming a bit more mature because I find it harder to find my enemies—or have I simply lost my capacity to get angry and to fight for that which is important in our society? What about POD? Has this organization lost its capacity to fight—has it lost its identity, because its old foes seem no longer to be so powerful or so wrong? I wonder.

THEME THREE: INTERDEPENDENCE vs. AUTONOMY

Several times during my review of old files, I stopped to reflect on a vivid memory of the past. One vivid memory concerned a weeklong workshop in which some of the most successful professional and organizational development practitioners in American higher education met with a group of forty-five faculty members from small colleges throughout the United States. These faculty members were participating in a two year training program to help them become effective as "change agents" and faculty development practitioners on their home campus.

At one point in this weeklong workshop, I distributed a questionnaire about different assumptions on how change takes place in contemporary organizations. I asked each participant to reveal his or her own dominant style and to talk about the implications of this style for his/her work. I recall that the discussion was interesting, though not particularly inspired.

Then one of the more "pushy" participants made an unpardonable request. She asked to see my own scores, as well as the scores of the five other "high powered" consultants and experts. After getting over the initial shock, we all began to offer our own scores in a hesitant and somewhat embarrassed manner. One at a time, each of us revealed that our highest

score was in the category that builds on the assumption that change rarely occurs in any form (that we simply must wait for the change to occur in an unplanned or "natural" manner). Understandably, the participants were in an uproar. How could we come to this workshop, preaching change and teaching the effective strategies for change, when we don't personally believe that planned change is really likely to occur!

Our initial collective answer to this outrage was somewhat academic. We indicated that after seeing many different efforts at change become unsuccessful, we were hesitant to endorse any general statement that would suggest that a particular formula for change is always or even usually successful. Unfortunately, our "pushy" participant wouldn't let us get away with this answer. She asked us why we were involved in planned change activities, when they are so rarely successful. At this point, the six of us became a bit more honest and the discussion became one of the most meaningful in which I have ever been engaged.

Each of us indicated that we primarily continue our work because of the friendships we have established in the field. Each of my five colleagues had decided to come to this workshop primarily to see and work with the four other people who were going to be there, as well as to make new acquaintances among the forty-five participants.

Thus, relationships seem to be central to our work as professional and organization development practitioners. These concerns were much more important to us than either the content of the workshop or the long-term goals of the change efforts that defined the mission of this training project—we seemed to be speaking in the "other voice" that is often associated with the development of women (Gilligan, 1982).

With this emphasis on relationship, however, I also vividly recall the independent or even competitive sense among us as professional and organization development practitioners. The push toward competition was always subtle and clothed in the best of intentions—yet it was present—along with an equally strong desire for autonomy. Most of us who were moving into consulting (either within one institution or working with multiple institutions) were motivated in part by a fervent desire to get free from the tyrannical constraints of daily regiment, bosses and institutional politics. We wanted to be able to set

our own standards, do work that we wanted to do and associate with people we found most interesting. We represented the epitome of an American quest for autonomy and profound individualism.[4] Thus our concern for relationships and community was offset by our desire for autonomy. Or was our search for community at least in part a product of our all-too-successful acquisition of autonomous life styles?

For the Professional and Organizational Development Network there may be a similar ambivalence about relatedness and autonomy. When several of my colleagues and I first envisioned POD, we (or at least I) saw it as a small intimate network of practitioners in the field who wanted to find support and refreshment in periodic, intensive contact with other people who had made a significant commitment to the field. In many ways this initial image was exclusionary and elitist. The alternative image—which eventually won the day—was of a national association that would draw in many people who were involved in or even peripherally interested in professional and organization development. I suspect that the first image was embedded in a search for community and interdependence. My own brief experience with POD in recent years would lead me to believe that the relational functions of POD are being served for both old and new members through the informal activities of the network's national meetings. I suspect that these informal activities are in fact more satisfying for the old members and may (like my original image) be exclusionary with regard to new members. Nevertheless, POD seems to be responsive to the need for relatedness.

POD is also an expression, however, of autonomy. I still see the model of external consultation being very attractive to many members: the idea of being one's own boss or of avoiding the muck and mire of daily institutional life is very appealing to those who long for autonomy. I see the national conferences being constructed (like most national meetings) around a series of autonomous workshops and activities with each presenter doing his or her own thing. This conference model is at the heart of the American character and certainly is not unique to POD—yet, for POD members, this model stands in contrast to the search for unity, relatedness and community. A POD organization that was structured around community might, for instance, have fewer alternative sessions and many more

general sessions in which members moved from small group to small group exchanging rather candid views of their own work and life. POD certainly hovers on the edge of this community—I remember an extraordinary evening of folk dancing at Montebello when fifty people seemed to be moving in unison and in joy. I have also witnessed several warm and supportive ceremonies that speak to the issue of community.

What does the future hold for an organization such as POD which is pulled in these different directions? Or am I only imagining this pull because I feel it myself, in my work and life?

THEME FOUR: DREAMS AND REALITY

In dusting off the old files I found many proposals for new programs. Some of these proposals were funded—I have been quite fortunate in this regard. Many other proposals, however, were not funded (I suspect that the most important unwritten principle of successful grantsmanship is: "Don't be discouraged when you are repeatedly turned down"). As I examined the enacted and rejected proposals and my reactions to them, many strong feelings and memories associated with those feelings arose.

I was pleased to read my initial proposal to AAHE that initiated the Wingspread Conference and led to POD, but read with some pain a wonderful, non-funded proposal for a nationwide comparative study of faculty development in two year and four year colleges and universities. I thoroughly enjoyed reading a proposal for a national experimental college that would be created from scratch each summer, for this dream of mine came to fruition and was even better in practice than on paper. Yet, I also keenly felt the disappointment of reading a proposal for the continuation of this college that was never funded.

It has always been difficult for me to take my dreams to an external funding agency. I hate the idea of walking into the office of a foundation executive with hat-in-hand to convince this person that my fragile and often quite personal idea is worthy of public or corporate support. Dreams are something to protect—something to enact in the privacy of one's own mind or at most among one's friends and colleagues. I enjoyed the experimental college in large part because a small group of faculty and students could individually and collectively enact

their own dreams regarding a high quality, humane education. Yet, we had to receive a generous grant from a private foundation to conduct this experimental college and had to obtain additional funding (which we were unable to do) if we were to sustain this enactment of our personal dreams.

In so many areas of my life, I must confront the painful collision between dreams and realities. I suspect I am not alone in this experience--especially among my fellow visionaries in POD and NCSPOD. Many adult development theorists would have us believe that we come to terms with the limitations of our dreams during our 40s transition. I wonder if this is wishful thinking. I anticipate that new dreams will continue to emerge during my 40s, 50s, 60s etc.—for as long as I am capable of dreaming and that the pain of intruding reality will not diminish.

I'm certainly not willing to abandon the dreams—yet I know that I can't ignore reality. Furthermore, I know through my own life experiences, as well as my reading of Carl Jung, that one of the emerging developmental tasks in my life concerns the reintegration of the realistic and idealistic aspects of my personality.

Higher education is filled with idealists like me. I find that faculty members and academic administrators will usually score at the extreme end of the Intuition Scale of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Briggs-Myers, 1977), having indicated very little interest in "reality" (high scores on the Sensation Scale). High Intuition scores suggest that a faculty member or administrator is much more interested in the world as it could be than in the work as it actually is. The high Intuition person will begin to rebuild a house in his/her mind within weeks after moving in. The rebuilding may never in fact take place; yet, the Intuitive person's home has usually been rebuilt many times over in his/her mind.

Similarly, for the highly intuitive professional or organization development practitioner the curriculum is rebuilt (at least in mind) every six months or the staff development program is reconceived yet another time by the faculty advisory committee. We are very difficult to work with in part because we seem to be indifferent to data, facts, statistics or direct experience. We argue about the reasons for student attrition without ever going out into the world to ask students why they left. We

design stately theoretical models without an adequate source of experiential building blocks (Kolb, 1984).

Yet, POD and NCSPOD members are also realists, for we are active and hopefully successful in translating ideas into practice. Our major purpose is helping our idealistic colleagues to be more effective in their professional practices (teaching, advising, governance, research, etc.). We confront faculty and administrators with data—with "facts": "Here are the dominant learning styles of your students;" "Here is the current level of critical thinking among Freshmen at this college;" "Here is the rate of learning for students when each of these instructional methods is applied;" "Here are the expressed needs of faculty with regard to support for research and scholarship at this university." I find myself being the realist in my consulting work with faculty and administrators and live in fear that I will be found out as an unrepentant dreamer and idealist. Do other members of POD and NCSPOD feel the same way at times—or do I simply have a bad grasp on reality (as a very high scoring Intuitive)?

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

What do these reflections tell me or, if generalizable, tell us about professional and organization development? First, I think that I have learned something from this exercise about conformity and creativity. I must be increasingly attuned to the ways in which I conform (or refuse to conform) and the ways in which I allow or encourage others to exert authority over me. I must be clearer about my own values and goals. What am I willing to compromise and where do I make my stand? This is certainly not a new insight—but it is something about which I must be frequently reminded, given the practical, expedient nature of my work as a professional and organization development consultant.

Second, I should try to appreciate my enemy more fully as I grow older. I must find new reasons for fighting the good fight and must be willing to live in a much more relativistic world, yet, remain committed and clear about my own values and priorities (Perry, 1970). I must remind myself that the "laggards" with regard to any innovation I propose are often the burned-out innovators of ten years before (Rogers, 1982). I

should honor and use their accumulated wisdom as historians of the past, both successful and unsuccessful. I should also remember that these "laggards" often change places with me regarding other issues; on some matters I become the intransigent laggard who will never change his position, while my conservative colleague becomes the proponent of change.

Third, I find that there is an even greater need for unified, cooperative action in American higher education, as resources continue to diminish while demands for quality and equity continue to increase. Furthermore, I will personally find greater satisfaction in community than in isolation and suspect that other men and women in American higher education share this dream. I do not wish to lose that which is distinctive about me as a person and professional but firmly believe that I can be at least a bit more cooperative and a bit less visible without sacrificing my integrity or identity.

Finally, I wish to continue to dream and to anchor these dreams in the realities that come with collegial discourse. While this essay has afforded me the opportunity for only an uninterrupted monologue, I thoroughly enjoyed the opportunity to discuss these ideas in person at the POD/NCSPOD conference and look forward to communicating with colleagues in the future about these reflections. Thank you for allowing me the opportunity to address you at the conference and in this essay.

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NOTES

1. This paper was presented as the keynote address for the 1985 POD Network—NCSPOD joint conference, Delavan, Wisconsin.

2. Warner Burke (1982, pp. 10-11) distinguishs between the "normative" and "contingent" camps of organization development. The former acknowledges that a "change agent" will inevitably be promoting a specific change, hence must acknowledge his/her own value system and its influence on one's client. The latter camp argues that professional and organization development practitioners can be value free and that they are in the business of facilitating the changes desired by their client rather than the changes that they wish to take place. Yet, like Burke, we must ask ourselves if, in fact, we can be "value-free"—especially with regard to something that we care about as higher education. When I worry about being "found out," I am, in part, worrying about my "contingent" stance being discovered as a "normative" stance.

3. In a moment of painful candor, Warner Burke (1982, pp. 371) has noted that "organization development is not . . . a revolutionary movement. Change in organizations most often is evolutionary, coming about slowly and by degrees; compromises occur; the original change goal is no longer feasible; people move to other positions or organizations just when change was in the making; changes in the environment cause setbacks, and our OD effort is temporarily if not permanently shelved; the diagnosis is too negative for the boss to handle and we must temper or delay matters somewhat; the boss is on board but key subordinates are not; and so on . . . In some instances . . . OD may be nothing more than a cooling-out process, so that the change the boss wants is no longer resisted." Similarly, in the case of professional development, we are often caught in the position of having to compromise our visions and "negotiating with the devil" in order to get anything of substance done.

4. See the brilliant and provocative analysis of the American character by Robert Bellah and his colleagues, *Habits of the Heart.* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1985.

Social Commitment: A Vision for Higher Education[1]

Sheryl Riechmann Hruska
University of Massachusetts

Concern for the future joins all people. Hearts long for safety, health, nurturance, community and growth. Divided by national boundaries, prejudice and points of view, the human race has not done well at providing these necessities for ourselves or the generations to come.

The success of the human race lies in the well-being and peace of mind of each person and community. Science and technology, power and money have contributed little toward this end. Yet, progress must be made.

It is questionable whether any of our existing institutions can do much to change our situation. However, if there is one, I think it is education. Here, I will be focusing on higher education for it is the designated source for the creation of new knowledge and the perpetuation of humanitarian values.

In this paper, I present a perspective on some of the dynamics that need urgent attention if higher education is to facilitate growth and enrich the human condition. I also offer suggestions about specific actions we can take now to become more effective facilitators of positive change.

THE SOCIAL CONTEXT

As countries adopt technology and bureaucratize production, changes occur as to *who* and *what* is valued. Consider

the following examples of what we can observe in "developed" and "developing" countres:

—Quantitative and technical information and language becomes increasingly valued along with those who know this information or how to talk this language (i.e., highly educated people, most often males of the dominant race or ethnic group). Certain occupations also become more highly valued (e.g., engineering, computer science).

—Qualitative information, feelings and intuition become suspect and devalued, along with those who operate with these as a central feature of their information base (i.e., many women and ethnic groups). Again, this is reflected in the lack of value placed on certain professions (e.g., human services, child care).

—Breaking problems and information into discrete parts is valued more than looking at things holistically, interdisciplinarily and in terms of long-term implications on other related elements. This occurs to the detriment of certain types of learners, women and ethnic groups who tend to view problems and the world in a social context and holistic fashion (Messick, 1976; Chesler, 1972; Gilligan, 1982; Miller, 1976) and to the detriment of certain problems that suffer from being studied in discrete parts (e.g., pollution, schooling and families).

—A highly educated few are seen as having the information and knowledge "that matter" and the wisdom to use these for the betterment of daily life and the progress of the country.

—Respect for the integrity and importance of nature fades as the perceived need for materials to fuel technological advancement increases. Notions of nature as a teacher, as the protector of the planet get lost as experts elevate their ideas and their importance as the saviors of the human race (or at least the lives of many in their own country).

—The acquisition of things becomes an end in itself and

the impact of this on relationships and family ties gets overlooked or devalued.

From these examples, we can see that expertise, information, knowledge, and wisdom are defined in a social context. Prevailing prejudices about these have far reaching consequences on the status and quality of life of millions.

Higher education seems not to acknowledge these prejudices. Much of the academy seems unaware or uncaring about how it perpetuates them and is limited by them. Yet, what is taught, who is taught, and who teaches are all inextricably interwoven with these prejudices and definitions.

Though higher education has the potential directly and indirectly to facilitate the development of all people, it has not taken seriously such a task, nor has it accepted the global scale of this need. The content expertise found in universities and colleges is only part of what is needed from higher education today. The possession of information alone cannot be seen as a virtue (Brown, 1986; Noddings, 1984). We need to define and deliver education in ways that unite people in the commitment to use what they know to enhance the development of others.

HIGHER EDUCATION AND A SOCIAL PURPOSE

Many who have written of the aims of education have set for us a social purpose (e.g., Dewey, 1964; Eble, 1983; Noddings, 1984). However, the search for appropriate aims often gets posed in either/or terms—vocational education vs. liberal education, sciences vs. humanities, technology vs. the liberal arts. Philosophers have argued in this vein, as have academic departments in their competition for resources and status. This way of framing the search for aims is limited on four interrelated counts.

The How and Why of Education

The argument framed in terms of disciplines defines higher education by what is taught and fosters arguments over what content is most important to know. The assumption seems to be that the acquisition of certain content, or consideration of certain theories will in itself lead to wisdom.

What can be ignored in this framing is the "how and why" of higher education. Without attention to desired outcomes and the quality of teaching and learning, we can have higher education that equals a simple accumulation of facts, concepts and theories that neither inspires nor enlightens. As Whitehead (1967) noted decades ago, there is no greater bore than a merely well-informed person. I would add, that besides being boring, such persons represent a loss in the potential development of the world.

Higher education must concern itself with how people use information and grow from its application. We need to attend to outcomes (e.g., educated, socially responsible world citizens) and how to achieve those outcomes. A focus on academic content is simply not enough.

Importance of Context

The either/or content debates overlook context. Information and education are treated separately from the environment. If one assumes, as do Dewey (1948) and Eble (1983), that education must address itself to practical ends and the growth of all people, then existing needs and problems become a guiding factor in the shaping of the educational endeavor.

In any country, at a particular time, many problems exist that limit the development of its residents and which need urgent attention (e.g., population growth, famine, pollution). For example, in the case of agriculture in the United States, the Morrill Act of 1865 and the consequent development of the land grant colleges led to increases in agricultural productivity. If socially responsible legislative action were to occur today in the wedding of agriculture and higher education, the focus might well be on participative rights regarding land usage or food distribution rather than production.

The problems of today are often international, and more socio-political or economic than technical. Yet, higher education has not reorganized itself to address these larger and more far-reaching problems. The academy operates in discipline-defined departments that have changed little in recent decades. We have yet to bring together our collective perspectives on issues of urgent need.

Defense department funding, foreign aid and industry

generate strong pressure on the selection of problems to be studied. Higher education has in many cases succumbed to these pressures. Broad aims of social development get traded for work on technical problems that may well serve the principle investigator's equipment supply and the funder more than those who are without the finances to buy attention to their needs.

Higher education needs to recontact the people and problems of the world. Discipline-defined faculty and curricula may limit our ability to work effectively on the multi-faceted problems of today.

Social Consciousness

The either/or disciplinary argument fails to address the need for each educator to have a social consciousness. It may be easy to see why we want those in the sciences to address in their teaching and research the social and environmental impact of their work. It may be harder to see why the notion of social responsibility is as vital in the humanities, liberal arts and professional schools. In a different, but no less important way, lack of social responsibility is as dangerous here. Historians, educators, business professors, for example, each paint a picture of past, present and future life. Both by overt action and omission, people in these fields can fail to help their students develop a humane, rounded and socially committed perspective on their profession and the world. They can instead help produce pedants, albeit highly intelligent pedants, and bigots.

Through such behaviors as prejudice in selecting events and authors, failure to address ethics, showing disrespect for alternative points of view, modeling discriminatory language or practices and failing to encourage concern for others, we send from our colleges people who reflect a limited notion of education. We send forth people with no vision and commitment to help others grow. They are unconcerned about the consequences of their work on others and unprepared to benefit from different perspectives.

The Hidden Curriculum

Discipline-based thinking overlooks the person teaching the content. The importance of the hidden curriculum has been noted by many authors (Illich, 1971; Friere, 1970; Bowles & Gintis, 1976). The power it wields resides in the world view of the teacher and how students are treated. Faculty who see books or the laboratory as their lives will surely provide different perspectives and information than faculty who have active interests outside their disciplines and who are concerned about their students and social issues. In the first instance, we are likely to see content as the beginning and end of the lesson. In the latter, we are likely to see exploring the content as a more interdisciplinary endeavor and as a means for facilitating personal and social development.

Higher education does little to help faculty develop in socially pro-active and interdisciplinary ways. We educate and evaluate our faculty in terms of content. For the most part, faculty (and their students) have not received an education designed to help them acquire a global perspective and social commitments. Faculty are left on their own to find the desire and means to such a broad education and to find it over and over again as the social and technical context changes.

Lack of emphasis on the hidden curriculum deters us from seeing the importance of ongoing personal and professional development of faculty and the need to study classroom interaction. Greater resource commitments to expanding the world view and social sensitivity of faculty members could go a long way toward enriching the nature of education students receive. If more faculty lived with greater compassion, cultural awareness, enthusiasm and generalist-leanings, then we may be in a better position to live up to Dewey's broad social aim for education- "to set free and to develop the capacities of human individuals without respect to race, sex, class or economic status" . . . "to educate every individual into the full stature of his (sic) possibility" (1948, p. 186).

Out of the concerns above comes a call for change. We need to keep our aims closely tied to global human and environmental development. In this light, we need to look hard at how we in higher education utilize the information at our disposal and how our students use it as well. The means by which we

accomplish our work must contribute to a foundation for community, mutual respect, and growth within and across national boundaries We need to build organization cultures and structures that more readily nurture interdisciplinary effort to deliver on a healthier vision for the future. In other words, the needed changes must occur personally, professionally and organizationally.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ACTION

To bring about this realization of a global, socially-based goal for education, changes need to occur on several fronts and levels.

Individual Faculty

If one accepts the aim of education to be the exploration and utilization of information to better the lives of all living things, then indeed we must each join in educational activity based on concerns and commitments that cross national boundaries and that draw sustenance from a personal commitment to furthering or enriching life. Our personal, inner development or understanding is extricably united with the choices we are called to make daily in carrying out our educational and research activities. We cannot afford to be unself-examined, narrow, prejudiced and simply competent purveyers of our disciplines. To be so is to not be able to raise ourselves to the scale of current problems or to inspire others to this larger cause. If individuals, communities and the planets are to develop in the best sense of that word, then we must more zealously commit ourselves to such expanded aims and self development. We must each see ourselves as one source, united with others, for creating a better world.

Specific ideas for action include:

—Incorporate teaching methods which are democratic in their assumptions and practice (i.e., experiential and interactive methods such as simulatons, cases, discussions, and group problem solving). Autocracy in the classroom makes for passivity and acceptance of authoritarianism elsewhere. Furthermore, given the complexity of problems facing us, we need to cultivate collaborative efforts at knowledge development and utilization.

—Include interpersonal outcomes in our teaching. We can teach content and also commitment to its ethical and moral use. We can help shape skills for communication, problem solving, and community building.

—Discover and eliminate the prejudices we hold. Each of us was carefully taught verbally and non-verbally by our families and the larger society to value some people more than others. These learned notions can be unlearned. We can come to value all human beings.

—Review research designs and course syllabi for hidden prejudice. Look at the race and sex of authors we cite and the world view they offer. Are we providing a mix of perspectives? Are we offering views that build toward greater human understanding?

—Step back and assess the world-view or paradigm from which we work. Our professional perspective, critique and commentary are all imbedded in or reflective of a paradigmatic stance. If we know our orientation and the options to it, we will be more rounded and perhaps better able to understand the views of others.

—Be generous and respectful in all our interpersonal interactions. Treat peers, secretaries, custodians and students as valuable human beings. Acting from a "caste" perspective within the institution models acceptance of a caste system in the larger social setting.

—Become knowledgeable about the literature on perceptual and learner differences (e.g., learning styles, gender, cultural orientations). With an appreciation of these differences, we can refrain from the impulse to label negatively behaviors that differ from our own.

—Increase the time and value given to joint and interdisciplinary scholarship. Give value to the growth-enhancing outcomes of professional work, rather than simply assessing journal titles and grant amounts.

Faculty Development Facilitators

In my experience, faculty development facilitators often interact with faculty in ways that promote the myth of value-free content and courses. We may unwittingly collude in the

delivery of education that enhances learning, but learning of little value to the person or the well-being of the world. I urge us to step out of a cloak of neutrality and act from a more socially responsible perspective. For example, in our work with faculty, we can jointly consider the items in the previous section plus . . .

—Review texts and references regarding gender and cultural representation.

—Explore reference material, teaching methods and classroom interactions for the values they promote (e.g., competition, collaboration, cultural pluralism, elitism) and discuss the values which might contribute to improved living conditions and well-being of all people.

—Examine the applications which students are asked to make of course content. Are the applications ones which ready students to work on social problems, to take ethical stances in the work place and to see themselves as able to make a contribution to bettering the human condition?

—Note examples of prejudice and affirmation in classroom interactions.

—Support faculty members who want to offer courses related to social visions, problems or issues (e.g., the politics of food, peace and war, the philosophy and politics of science). Bring faculty together who might be interested and able to deliver interdisciplinary courses on such problems and new visions.

—Expand our own reference material to include literature on social issues in teaching and higher education.

Administrators

Faculty behavior, student-to-student interaction and campus climate contribute to student attitudes, values, knowledge and behavior. Movement toward the graduation of students with global perspectives and the skills to act in socially responsible ways can start to shift the views countries hold of each other and the forces of oppression that smother people throughout the world. As administrators we can help institute practices and policies that support not only growth for students but

others inside and in contact with the campus. For example, we can:

—Reward faculty and provide financial support for the development of interdisciplinary courses which address world problems and visions for a healthier world.

—Sponsor institutes and consultants to help faculty review their scholarly and teaching activities in terms of social issues and needs. Do the same for others in the institution regarding how they do their work.

—Actively sponsor and promote affirmative action in attracting and retaining a culturally diverse faculty and student body. Model this in our own staffing patterns and practices.

—Encourage, finance and reward cross-cultural and transnational dialogue, research and exchanges of faculty and students.

—Review the mission of the institution and be sure a commitment to enhancing the human development of all is visible and supported throughout the institution.

—Encourage and reward the redesign of curricula and academic programs which more directly address social issues and prepare students to act in socially responsible ways.

—Support faculty in obtaining funding which will result in environmentally and humanly healthy outcomes. Do not let funding-source options dictate institutional mission and activities.

CONCLUSION

In all our actions, we contribute to the shape of the future. As educators, our attitudes and behaviors get reproduced and multiplied through the actions of our students. Our new information, techniques and technology shape the lives of many we will never see.

Pressures toward specialization, reductionism, nationalism and bureaucracy can easily detract us from a commitment to collaboration, human rights and a world community. Because of prevailing norms and habits, even the actions suggested above

can involve risk. Those actions often involve being different from the norm and speaking out for different professional standards and activities.

Changes of the nature and scope proposed in this paper are not easy. Soul searching, behavior change and organization redesign are all part of it. Success will come more readily if we join with others in these efforts. Here and abroad we can strengthen our commitment to a vision of growth, love and sustenance for all. We must start acting now to make this vision the reality experienced by us and future generations.

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NOTES

1. This paper is based on a paper presented at the Visions of Higher Education: TransNational Dialogues, Stockton, New Jersey, August, 1985.

PART II
CONCEPTUALIZATIONS

Part of the process of learning involves the making of models to guide action. A good model explains what has happened, communicates what is happening, and predicts what will happen. It serves as a schema for thinking about the world and how we interact with it. This can be freeing because a useful model points to new directions which are logical outgrowths of the current situation, but it can also be restricting if we come to believe that the model represents "truth" in capital letters and neon lights.

Whatever the flaws of the ultimate product, the process of building models is one mechanism for growth as a profession. When we begin to conceptualize regularities in what we do, we can be more systematic not only in our actions, but in the study of our field and the transmission of knowledge to others. The papers in this section represent attempts by several authors to build models which can direct our activities as professionals. Such models help the novice who is just learning the ropes as well as stimulating the master practitioner to think about his/her actions in a new light.

Coping with Resistance to Faculty Development[1]

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Faculty developers, like the professionals they serve, are susceptible to dysfunctional, job-related stress and diminished enthusiasm for their work. One source of job dissatisfaction for developers lies in the resistance encountered in attempting to present services and programs, especially those that go beyond the awarding of travel money and released time from teaching. Two obvious kinds of resistance, for example, are the typical low level of faculty participation and the numerous objections raised by both faculty and administrators to virtually any program offered.

This paper proposes a proactive approach for faculty developers in seeking to identify and understand the various forms of resistance encountered. Based on our own experience and observations, we provide a preliminary listing of the ways in which resistances are most frequently manifest and suggestions for coping with these more productively.

SUGGESTION OF A MODEL FOR CONCEPTUALIZING RESISTANCE

Traditional notions about resistance derive from the dynamics of client/therapist interaction (Ellis, 1985; Strean, 1985). While it is not clear that concepts of resistance that emerge in the therapeutic dyad are always of direct relevance in

faculty development, they offer a reasonable beginning. Typically, the clinical literature identifies three issues in understanding and coping with resistance.

The first issue is the realization that resistance can reveal important information about the individual's needs and suggest forms of intervention. That is, while uncooperative attitudes and behaviors can be frustrating and seemingly unproductive, they also provide insights that might otherwise be unavailable. For example, we find that problematic instructors who resist intervention by blaming their ineffectiveness on student ineptitude typically do not interact with students in or out of the classroom. Simple interventions focused on increasing the frequency of teacher/student contacts often result in significant positive change in both attitude and performance.

The second issue is the need to develop an objective perspective that helps minimize personal reactions to the aversive properties of resistance. This capacity to distance oneself from the emotional content of resistance is as important for faculty developers as for others who provide professional services (e.g., lawyers, physicians, psychotherapists). We find it useful to remind ourselves that our interactions with faculty often involve issues that cut to the core of an individual's sense of competence and self-esteem. That is, resistance is an expected by-product of an emotionally charged situation. It is part of one's professional role to cope with it objectively but sensitively.

The third issue is to recognize that the providers of help or services can contribute to their own problems by unnecessarily eliciting resistance. Our personal style, the way we present our programs, our beliefs in what works and what doesn't, our own defensiveness toward evaluation and criticism, what we call ourselves (i.e., developers), and other such factors, may be significant as either shortcomings or strengths. An attitude of objective self-scrutiny can provide important insights into the ways we create resistance by unwittingly annoying and alienating faculty.

EXAMPLES OF RESISTANCE TO FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

In an effort to begin documenting the typical kinds of resistance encountered, we took extensive notes on the comments made by deans and chairs as they responded to new program

offerings. A content analysis of these data generated a rank ordering of their most common objections. The general types and frequencies of resistances encountered appear quite similar to those we are finding in interviews with newly-hired faculty.

"Faculty are too busy to participate in faculty development!"

Initially, at least, deans and chairs being interviewed (Boice, 1985) about possibilities of arranging developmental programs with their faculty claimed that both they and their faculty were too busy to participate. This sort of finding is not unusual. McKeachie (1979) is among the developers who emphasize the long, hard hours worked by academicians. Not surprisingly, academicians resist new programs that will make demands on schedules that seem already saturated (Boice, 1986). In a study in progress, we have found that newly hired young faculty also invoke time constraints as the major reason for non-participation in workshops and other programs.

"The only program faculty want is released time from teaching."

With almost equal frequency, the same deans and chairs objected to suggestions for programs because they assumed that any meaningful program would require substantial financing and administrative commitment. In fact, most assumed that faculty development could not be done without providing faculty released time from teaching. Here again, parallels can be seen in the accounts of other developers. Kirschling (1979), for example, notes that faculty express strong preferences for developmental programs that include released time and other visible rewards. Gaff (1978), similarly, concludes that faculty resist improvements in areas that don't include financial incentives. Our interviews with new faculty also support this conclusion. Most spent considerable time and effort applying for released time, but avoided other programs.

"They've either got it or they don't."

This reservation about developmental programs was not nearly so common as the first two, but was far more frequent than we had expected. It seems to stem from the general assumption that teachers and/or scholars are born, not made. We found that chairs and deans expressed this prejudice in a variety

of forms, among them the assumptions that troubled faculty are largely responsible for their own difficulties and should have known better, are indolent or otherwise morally weak, and should be mature enough to recognize and solve their own problems. Many deans and chairs also indicated that resources would be better spent on more deserving faculty. Developers who have made similar points include Gaff (1978), who reviews the folklore about supposedly inborn qualities of good teachers.

Kindred kinds of negativism about the long-term prospects of developmental programs include recollections that many innovative programs have already fallen into disuse (Davis, 1979), that faculty have difficulty assimilating suggestions for changes (Freedman & Sanford, 1973), and that faculty participants are often inflexible and unappreciative (Boice & Myers, in press; Shrock, 1985). One of the most discouraging conclusions comes from the admirably thoroughgoing accounts of Eble and McKeachie (1985): they surmised that the kinds of faculty who typically get help in developmental programs probably would have shown the same results without the external incentives provided.

"Your programs raise issues about faculty's rights to privacy, autonomy, and academic freedom."

The fourth most common objection, concerns about autonomy and related issues, might have been expected to be the most frequent category. And, in a way, it is. We, at least, find that this issue underlies almost every concern about developmental programs. Consider, for example, that for many faculty and administrators, development implies incompetence (Arreola, 1985). Chairs, accordingly, often feel they are being pressured to condone a program that will make faculty feel that they are singled out for remediation (Boice, 1985; in press).

"Faculty don't want help."

Deans and chairs expressed this kind of resistance almost reluctantly. But once they began verbalizing the idea, they showed increasing conviction that many faculty are reluctant to admit to a need for help and too proud to accept it. In this context, deans and chairs often described faculty in terms like "individual entrepreneurs" or "prima donnas." Consistent with

that image, other developers have noted that faculty, given their own choice of developmental aids, chose tangible benefits like reductions in work load (Leslie, Swiren, & Flexner, 1977). Unfortunately, many faculty tend to see developmental programs as little more than administrative interference (Gaff, 1978; Lewis & Becker, 1979).

"How do you know it works?"

This sixth and final of the commonly stated resistances may have ranked low, in part, because the attitudes involved were ambivalent and difficult to verbalize. That is, deans and chairs seemed to have a general belief that faculty development programs are inherently unsystematic and that the results of such programs might be ephemeral, but had some difficulty in providing specific examples. Indeed, much of the literature on faculty development supports this presumption (Boice, 1984). Even research-oriented developers like Braskamp (1980) recognize that their work lacks clear empirical evidence in areas like quality of teaching, while others emphasize the inherent double-bind in conducting assessments that may also be used for administrative evaluations (Howard, 1977).

Part of the problem is that much of what passes for faculty development (e.g., workshops, released time, etc.) is complicated by a host of uncontrolled variables, and even those variables which are controllable in principle (e.g., sample characteristics) are extremely difficult to manipulate given the practical constraints of the developer's role. Further, it seems likely that faculty development programs are placebo-responsive. This means that the perceived credibility, commitment, and enthusiasm of the developer may play a significant role in the success or failure of a given program, regardless of its actual content or other specified features (Gallimore & Turner, 1969; Turner, Gallimore, & Fox-Henning, 1980).

COPING WITH RESISTANCE

Quick perusal of these common reservations about faculty development programs provides some reminders about the clinical model of resistance proposed earlier. That is, the objectors are evidently suggesting areas in which they would like to see developers provide help. And, with a bit of scrutiny, their

objections suggest a number of areas where developers themselves are helping generate the resistance.

Given that we have little information on how other developers cope with such resistances, we propose using the model of clinical resistance as a means of generating possible solutions. Briefly, we will focus on each of the three steps: a) what resistance reveals about needed interventions, b) how to objectify the negative emotionalism involved in resistance, and c) the developers' own contributions to resistance.

What Resistance Says About Needed Interventions

We have found that, given faculty members' pervasive complaints about too little time, the temptation is to challenge such assertions. Even on initial reflection of what's happening in such an interaction, two things become apparent. First, it rarely helps to become annoyed. A basic rule that psychotherapists learn in eliciting cooperation from patients is not to put patients on the defensive, especially by using guilt-inducing statements (Boice, Andrasik, & Simmons, 1984). Second, lack of time is often a specious complaint. Busyness is such a salient value in academic subculture that it is routinely employed as a self-presentation strategy regardless of objective time constraints.

So, for example, when administrators and faculty say that they have too little time for faculty development, an appropriate program to offer is one on time management. In fact, recent research shown that academicians often misperceive their time allocations, supposing that they have no time for scholarship when, in fact, they do (Boice, 1986). What these faculty needed instead of the large blocks of free time they imagined essential were ways of setting limits on demands for their time and practical strategies for using their available time more efficiently.

Similar insights can be obtained from other types of resistance. In the case of complaints about insufficient finances, administrators may be especially receptive to cost-effective innovation in program designs. With the complaint that faculty can't change, the message to the developer may be that administrators confuse their own assumptions about faculty attitudes with an inability to change. When the complaint concerns faculty autonomy, administrators often are unnecessarily cautious or reluctant to provide necessary help.

On the other hand, faculty who decline developmental programs in the name of autonomy may in fact be demonstrating their mistrust of administrators (Boice, in press).

Finally, objections that faculty development cannot be empirically assessed may be a clue the individuals making the complaint need education about recent research in faculty development. While there is some truth to the assertion that faculty development programs are rarely evaluated and that gains are often temporary, in principle, this area is no more immune to measurement than other disciplines in the social sciences.

How to Cope with the Aversive Properties of Resistance

In essence, the coping strategy here entails a new perspective on what could otherwise be troublesome interactions. The developer must expect resistance and even welcome it. He or she must, ideally, choose to study the objections as though collecting evidence about interesting interactions. When a developer is in that role of seeing even the most emotional objections as yet more interesting data, he or she remains remarkably calm. Along with that serenity, at least two other benefits accrue: the other person also remains calm, and the developer maintains a more objective stance. Ansel Adams (1985) recalls having learned a similar value in maintaining a "clinical attitude:" "To this day, when under stress I find myself dispassionately observing people and their reactions as well as my own" (p. 161). Adams' skill as a photographer, some of which he attributes to this ability for "distancing," helps dispel concerns that a clinical attitude must interfere with communication.

In our own experience of proposing developmental programs, one administrator reacted almost immediately with a comment about faculty development being a boondoggle. This less than diplomatic attitude is not uncommon. Rather than becoming defensive, we chose instead to agree that we could understand his feeling and encouraged further elaboration. What emerged was a rich and frank discussion of his perceptions of faculty development. We also chose to interpret his comments as indicating a need for intervention (e.g., a systematic program for education administrators about the basics of our programs).

What Resistance Can Tell You About Yourself

In the usual process of learning to analyze and cope with resistance from others, the analyst begins to discover that his/her own feelings and behaviors may contribute to or encourage resistant responses. Whenever serious resistance to developmental programs is encountered, the developer should actively look for his/her own contribution to it. One way to discover possibilities for such reactions is to routinely solicit faculty and administrator feedback on program offerings. Programs may be perceived as foolishly idealistic, as evangelistic, as irrelevant to current needs, as unduly demanding and impractical, etc.

A particularly effective means of learning about one's own tendencies to elicit resistance is a simple social skills strategy (Curran & Monti, 1982). It begins with the counter-intuitive ploy of finding a way to agree with criticism, no matter how inappropriate or unfounded it may seem. The developer in this role should maintain an attitude of sincere interest while asking the critic for further elaboration of all feelings and experiences which help to clarify the critic's objections. With this accomplished, critical feedback can be utilized constructively for program evaluation, and the probability of developing a sense of mutual respect and trust in one another's professionalism is enhanced.

As a rule, the last part of this process that emerges when developers practice objective analysis of resistance is recognition that they bring their own sets of negative biases to their work. For example, developers may unwittingly communicate personal attitudes and beliefs that seem a) counterproductive (e.g., cynicism, grandiosity, self-righteousness, etc.), b) resistant to evaluation of the relevance and efficacy of their programs, c) overreactive (favorably or unfavorably) to individuals, and d) blameful of others for all problems or failures. We occasionally find ourselves in this pose. But then, because we actively work at defusing and learning from such realizations, this procedure often functions as an effective antidote to the disillusioning aspects of our work.

DISCUSSION

Overall, these considerations suggest that some of the frustrations encountered in faculty development can be viewed

more constructively. While it is easy to become discouraged by negative responses to programs, adopting the model proposed here can help in three ways: first, this perspective helps developers conceptualize and cope with their own occupational frustrations and avoid burnout; second, it helps sensitize developers to their own characteristic modes of reaction as a major contributor to the problem; third, systematic documentation of resistance provides a valuable opportunity for ongoing collection of naturalistic data and a better understanding of the varying perspectives and concerns of faculty and administrators.

Further, adopting this approach suggests other potentially useful ways of looking at resistance to faculty development. Some of these include: 1) The difference between active and passive resistance (i.e., the kinds of resistance listed in the rank-ordering above were expressed as active resistance; passive sorts of resistance may be evidenced in more subtle forms—e.g., a high incidence of unreturned phone calls and/or broken appointments). 2) The importance for the developer of learning to use his or her own emotional reactions to resistance as a clue that more objective analysis needs to be utilized. So, for example, maintaining a diary of critical incidents and one's own reactions and feelings could be instructive in this regard. 3) The realization that manifest resistances may reflect underlying values and themes which might not otherwise be readily perceived or understood (Deshler, 1985).

Many faculty developers occupy a marginal role status in academic subculture (i.e., neither faculty nor administrators). This marginality, while problematic and often a source of resistance, also offers a unique opportunity to document and examine faculty/administration conflicts from a more detached wholistic perspective. Adopting the role of ethnographer can create opportunities for making significant research contributions to our discipline while at the same time enhancing professional effectiveness and personal well-being.

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1. This paper was originally presented at the 1985 Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education Conference held at Delavan, Wisconsin.

Using Qualitative Methods to Generate Data for Instructional Development

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Instructional and faculty development consultants are continually searching for ways to provide instructors with valid information and insights about the quality of their teaching. This information should identify problems, provide baseline assessments against which instructional improvement can be measured, and make recommendations/suggestions for instructional improvement. As with any problem solving effort, the entire process must be based on verifiable, valid and reliable data.

Collecting such data is particularly difficult in teaching contexts for several reasons: 1) teaching environments are extremely complex; 2) effective teachers represent a wide range of idiosyncratic behaviors and styles; 3) the roles of students and student/teacher relationships vary from context to context; and 4) different courses require differences in course goals, daily objectives, and student outcomes. Analyzing what goes on in classrooms, therefore, requires a systematic approach including the specific research steps of data collection, data analysis and interpretation and application of findings. We have found that certain kinds of data are useful for such purposes and that qualitative research methods provide an effective way of collecting such data.

DEFINING QUALITATIVE METHODS

Since its inception in educational research, qualitative methodology has been referred to in a variety of ways including qualitative research, case or field studies, naturalistic inquiry, participant observation studies, ethnographies, and interpretive research. Before we look at the kinds of data that qualitative methods can provide, then, it is useful to achieve some common understanding of what is meant by qualitative methods. Explanations by Philipsen (1982) and Patton (1980) have been especially helpful for providing insights about qualitative methodology as we use it for instructional development.

Philipsen (1982), in his discussion of the qualitative case study, suggests that qualitative inquiry is *in situ*, exploratory, openly-coded, and participatory. He explains these dimensions of qualitative inquiry in the following way: "The investigator searches the context in which the phenomenon of interest occurs naturally without deliberately producing the phenomenon; explores the phenomenon of interest by describing it without total reliance upon pre-determined codes or categories; and uses his or her own experiencing of the phenomenon as one source of insight into it" (Philipsen, 1982, p. 10). This explanation is useful for suggesting what qualitative inquiry entails.

The primary methods of collecting qualitative data are interviewing, observing, and studying printed materials.[1] According to Patton (1980), the kind of information collected from a qualitative measurement process includes detailed descriptions, direct quotations, and excerpts or passages from written documents (p. 22). These kinds of data can be analyzed to provide insights into what is occurring in dynamic, multivariate classroom environments.[2]

GENERATING USEFUL DATA

The fact that the classroom environment is dynamic, individualistic and multivariate requires generation of data that can provide the most complete understanding of the instructional process. Unfortunately, the generation of such data is not an easy task. As Cooper (1982) suggests: "Gaining access to the internal workings of the process to uncover how the parts of the system are integrated and function is a challenge" (p. 2). We find, however, that we obtain a more holistic understanding of

the instructional process for an individual instructor if we can generate data that meet the following criteria:

1. The data represent the complexity of classroom environments.
2. The data account for context variables.
3. The data incorporate the perspectives of classroom participants whether they be teachers, students, visitors, and/or administrators.
4. The data represent the specific case.

We have found that data generated by qualitative methods allow us to meet these criteria successfully.

Classroom Complexity

Data generated by qualitative methods meet the first criterion by providing a way to capture the interactive complexity of the classroom environment. Numerous researchers contend that although traditional research approaches have been insightful in many ways, they should not be relied on as the only sources of data with which to study teaching effectiveness. Pedersen (1975) observes that the teaching-learning sequence contains variables that are so numerous and complex in their interaction with one another that the process is difficult to define and study: "The teacher's influence upon educational outcomes interacts with the influence of so many other agents that it becomes extremely difficult to determine with much certainty the effects of a particular teacher upon a particular pupil" (p. 18). The exploratory nature of qualitative methods, however, provides a way for the variables to emerge without the constraints of predetermined units and measurement categories. As Cooper (1982) suggests:

> Classroom teaching is indeed complex and interactive. To get inside the instructional process, inquiry methods are needed which allow the consultant and instructor to examine parts while not losing sight of the whole; to explore the event from within while standing outside and looking in; to fix an event in time while remembering that in its context it is ongoing; to attend to various views of the same event; and to remain flexible and open to ideas. The fieldwork techniques of school ethnographies provide means to examine, analyze, and understand the interaction dynamics and the structure of classroom teaching. (p. 2)

Context

Data generated by qualitative methods meet the second criterion by providing a way to address context variables in the study of the teaching-learning process. As McKenna (1981) points out:

> Success in teaching, however defined and assessed, is highly contextual. Therefore, if evaluation of teaching and teachers is to serve meaningful and useful purposes, it must not only identify and define all the mitigating contexts but must also take into account their influences, both constructive and negative, in determining success. (p. 23)

The field methods of qualitative inquiry allow the investigator to study teaching and learning in the natural context and to account for contextual variables which influence the teaching process.

Participant Perspectives

Data generated by qualitative methods meet the third criterion by allowing for the incorporation of the perspectives of the participants. Numerous researchers have stressed the importance of understanding the perspectives of the participants in studying the teaching-learning context (Bussi, Chittenden, & Amarel, 1976; Fenstermacher, 1979; Staton-Spicer, 1982; Wilson, 1977). Erickson (1986), however, is among the most recent to suggest the importance of the local meanings that happenings have for the people involved in them: "In different classrooms, schools, and communities, events that seem ostensibly the same may have distinctly differing local meanings" (Erickson, 1986, p. 122). Cooper (1981) suggests the importance of a qualitative approach in understanding the participants' perspectives:

> A naturalistic research process which employs multiple methods and taps the conscious and tacit knowledge of the instructor, student, and researcher enables us to describe *how* the dynamics of the instructional process are produced and interpreted . . . . The more that is known about what behaviors mean, the closer we can come to behaving in ways to accomplish the results desired. (p. 36).

Specific Case

Finally, data produced by qualitative methods meet the fourth criterion by allowing the instructional improvement

process to focus on specifics. As Erickson (1986) suggests:

> Answering the question, "What is happening?" with a general answer often is not very useful. "The teacher (or student) in this classroom is (are) on task" often doesn't tell us the specific details that are needed in order to understand the points of view of the actors involved. (p. 121)

Fieldwork methods, however, have the potential for providing specific understanding "through documentation of concrete details of practice" (Erickson, 1986, p. 121).

Although collecting data to be used for improvement of instruction is difficult, we find that we can obtain the most complete understanding of the dynamics of a classroom if we can generate information that represents the complexity of the classroom, accounts for context variables, incorporates the perspectives of the participants, and represents specifics of the case. Qualitative methods have provided us with a way of generating such data.

APPLYING QUALITATIVE METHODS TO A TYPICAL CASE

One way of increasing understanding of the use of qualitative methods to generate useful data for instructional development is to discuss individual cases. The following case, then, is presented as a specific application of qualitative methods to gather information for instructor and course improvement.

A Case Study

This case study represents the application of qualitative research methods for a course which was viewed as a departmental problem. The contact was initiated by the department chair in a professional program. The required course, which met all day long, one day a week, contained both a lecture and a laboratory component. In the mornings the 50 students attended two-hour lectures delivered by the same professor for the entire term. The remaining seven hours of each day were spent in the laboratory where students worked individually under the supervision of one of seven lab instructors.

An initial interview with the department chair suggested that the primary concern was the amount of time it was taking students to complete projects in the laboratory portion of the

class. The chair reported that the instructors suspected that students were having difficulty transferring their learning from the lecture to the laboratory. Consequently, he was interested in specific instructional strategies which would assist students in applying the lecture material in the laboratory. He perceived, however, that students procrastinated, failed to use the laboratory manual, and expected to finish projects outside regularly scheduled laboratory time. As a result, they were not taking advantage of the supervision available during regularly scheduled laboratory hours. In addition, he felt that the existence of an "attitude problem" might be affecting students' ability to finish projects on time. He was interested in a student input that would assist instructors in improving the course and eliminating the problems.

Because of the need for an open-ended approach that provided detailed description of what was happening in the course, it was decided to use the qualitative methods of observation and interview to obtain data for the case. The interview data were obtained from the department chair and the students. The observational data were compiled by the consultants who worked on the project. The primary sources of data for this case, then, were the department chair, the observers and the students.

The chair provided qualitative input in two ways. First, he provided information in the initial interview with the consultants. At that time he discussed his concerns about the course and his perceptions of the reasons for the course difficulties. After the initial interview, he was asked to write responses to open-ended questions about goals of the course, instructors' expectations, and the relationship between the lecture and laboratory components of the course. From these data bases, it was determined that the variables of major concern to the director were related to use of laboratory time, completion deadlines, the link between the lecture and the laboratory, use of instructors' expertise during laboratory time, instructional strategies to increase student efficiency, and student attitudes.

Two consultants observed in the lecture and laboratory components of the course to develop perspectives on the most important instructional variables to be considered. The observers attended both the lecture and the laboratory sections of the course for ten collective hours. They used the variables identified

by the director as a framework to sensitize them to possible areas of difficulty. However, they remained open to the emergence of variables that had not been previously identified by the department chair. From the observational data, the major instructional variable that needed to be addressed was related to expectations for the course. Analysis of observational data suggested that it would be important to clarify expectations about the course and the roles of the lecture, the laboratory, the instructors, and the students in meeting those expectations. These major areas of need, then, were used to develop the schedule of questions for interviews with the students.

Interviews with students provided the third, and primary, source of information for assessing the course. Using questions that focused students on expectations for the course and ways to meet those expectations, the consultants conducted one-to-one interviews with 37 of the students in the class (74% of the population). Each interview lasted 15-20 minutes. These interviews then provided not only major areas of student concern but also specific suggestions about how the course might be improved. Major areas of concern identified by the students were related to the link between lecture and laboratory, evaluation procedures in lecture and laboratory, amount of time spent working outside the laboratory, instructional strategies in the laboratory, and class atmosphere and reinforcement. The interview data provided detailed descriptions and quotations with which to clarify students' perceptions and make specific recommendations for improving the course.

The data generated for improvement of this course met the four criteria previously identified. The variety of interview and observation methods made it possible to obtain a more complete understanding of the **complexity of the course**. For instance, as data for the case were analyzed, it became evident that the problem involved more than transferring learning from lecture to laboratory. It was not only a matter of the way the students interacted with the content of the course but also a matter of the way that students and instructors interacted with each other over the content of the course. Consequently, such variables as the roles of instructors in the laboratory, standards of excellence, and methods of evaluation emerged. The exploratory approach characteristic of qualitative methods allowed for the emergence of these additional variables.

Observation in the classroom and the laboratory provided opportunities to investigate **contextual variables** in the course. Data from the laboratory context, for instance, suggested that there were alternative instructor roles that could be incorporated to help students avoid time-consuming mistakes that they were making while they waited for assistance and feedback. In some cases the laboratory context prevented instructors from providing assistance at crucial times during the decision-making process. One instructor managed to adapt, however, by viewing his role as a demonstrator as well as an evaluator of student efforts. Working with his students as a group before they began to work individually, this instructor demonstrated how to anticipate and avoid time-consuming mistakes. As a result, he saved time for the students and himself. Studying the instructor *in situ* increased the investigators' understanding of the ways the demonstrative approach could be used in this course to assist students in completing projects on time.

The use of the **perspectives of the participants** also allowed the investigators to reach some important conclusions about the course. The opportunity to compare information across data sources, for example, allowed the researchers to determine that there were inconsistencies in the students' and instructors' perceptions of the course. Whereas the instructors thought that students expected to finish projects outside regularly scheduled laboratory time, students perceived that instructors expected them to spend additional time working independently on the projects. In this instance, understanding the perspectives of the participants allowed the investigators to identify inconsistencies of which neither the students nor the instructors were aware.

Finally, with the level of detail provided by the variety of qualitative methods, it was possible to focus more fully on the **specific case**. It was helpful to know not only that students were confused about applying concepts from the lecture in the laboratory but also that the confusion often stemmed from inconsistency in the way terminology was used by the instructor in the class. It was also helpful to know not only that instructors were setting up expectations for students to complete projects outside scheduled laboratory time but also that specific instructor behaviors were conveying those expectations to the students. Data that met the four criteria, then, provided a more complete understanding of the problems of the case.

Once data were generated and analyzed, it was possible to process the information to determine the most significant variables to be considered in setting goals for improvement. The qualitative methods of obtaining and analyzing the data allowed the consultants to identify not only major areas of change for the course but also specific ways in which those changes might be implemented. In this case the use of qualitative methods to generate data for course improvement resulted in a set of recommendations which were quickly adopted and implemented by the department.

SUMMARY

The basic contention of this paper is that data collected to assist instructors in improving their teaching effectiveness are more useful when they meet certain criteria and that qualitative research methods provide ways of generating such data. Ideally, all instructors would be willing to spend enough time on their teaching to use a variety of qualitative methods in their efforts. Such efforts, then, could incorporate observation in the natural environment, videotape, interviews, and study of documents as qualitative methods useful for collecting data to improve teaching. Ongoing teacher improvement efforts using this greater variety of strategies would be taking advantage of the full potential of qualitative methods.

Realistically, however, many instructors are limited by the amount of time they can and will contribute to improve teaching efforts. The specific application in this paper is an example of what can be accomplished by adapting qualitative methods to meet the needs of busy instructors. The information collected met the four criteria for useful data. The data represented the complexity of the classroom environment, included context variables, incorporated the perspectives of the participants, and described the specific case. Qualitative methods provided a way of collecting information that could be analyzed, interpreted and translated into recommendations and changes. It is hoped that faculty development consultants can use ideas from this paper as an impetus to think creatively about the variety of ways that qualitative methodology can be employed to generate data useful for improving teaching effectiveness.

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NOTES

1. For a thorough and relatively straightforward description of "how to" collect qualitative data in the various forms of interview, observation, and document study, see Goetz & LeCompte (1984), Lincoln & Guba (1985), or Patton (1980).

2. Researchers using qualitative methods need to become familiar with specific analytic procedures including the use of conceptual frameworks and matrices. For discussion of qualitative data analysis, see Goetz & Lecompte (1984); Miles and Huberman (1984); and Patton (1980).

Peripheral Programming: An Approach to Faculty Development

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THE ORIGINAL ROLE OF THE LEARNING AND TEACHING CENTRE

Many Centres struggle with the issue of low rates of participation. The purpose of this paper is to show how one Centre attacked this problem systematically and to provide some models to help other Centres analyze their own programming.

The ingredients that contribute to limited faculty participation in programs for teaching development are familiar: tenure procedures give little recognition to teaching excellence, the pressure towards specialization makes undergraduate teaching less appealing, colleagues often do not value the proficient teacher, and faculty seldom receive any pre-service preparation for teaching. Prior to the Fall of 1985 the mission of the Learning and Teaching Centre at the University of Victoria had been exclusively in the domain which Bergquist and Phillips (1975) described as Instructional Development. The Centre offered seminars on teaching methods and peer teaching workshops together with research projects and various forms of consultation. This pattern was modestly successful, although the role of the Centre did not seem to be fully understood and accepted on the campus, and workshops and seminars were often poorly attended. This spurred the staff of the Centre to focus greater attention on ways to increase the rate of faculty participation in the various program activities.

INITIATIVES

The direction selected was to move into the second domain identified by Bergquist and Phillips, namely that of Personal Development.[1] This is referred to in this paper as "Peripheral Programming" because the original mandate of this particular Centre was to focus more or less exclusively on the teaching responsibilities of faculty.

The Centre had already run regular orientations for new faculty and teaching assistants and was involved in the support of innovative teaching projects through an Academic Development Fund. Four additional initiatives were launched: (a) additional orientations to campus services, (b) training for non-teaching aspects of the professorial mandate, (c) building cross-disciplinary relationships between faculty, and (d) personal or life-skills learning. Examples of programs in each of these areas are indicated in Figure 1. These sessions attracted large numbers of participants and evaluations were positive, although sessions like the Tax Planning seminars tended to provoke some questioning of the role of the Centre.

TYPES OF PROGRAM ACTIVITIES

PROGRAM AREA	SAMPLE ACTIVITIES
ORIENTATIONS	AUDIO VISUAL SERVICES COMPUTER SERVICES RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION
NON-TEACHING ROLES	PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURES MEETING MANAGEMENT EDITING PAPERS THESIS SUPERVISION
CROSS-DISCIPLINARY RELATIONSHIPS	LAYMAN'S LEARNING LUNCHES PEER REVIEW EXCHANGE
PERSONAL SKILLS	UNDERSTANDING THE PENSION PLAN TAX PLANNING FOR ACADEMICS

FIGURE 1

One of the unanticipated consequences of this program thrust was that new constituencies of participants were attracted to some of these sessions. For example, the seminar on Parliamentary Procedures attracted, in addition to faculty, executive members of two campus-based unions, several librarians and members of the administrative-professional staff group. Both the administrative staff group and the Unions were vocal in their appreciation of the session and positively strident in expressing the wish for more development opportunities of a similar nature. The Centre staff had some initial concern about overstepping the mandate of the Centre, but with the active support of the Director of Personnel and the approval of the Vice President, Academic, plans are underway to explore modest program initiatives geared to the specific needs of faculty administrators in the coming years.

Another new constituency was revealed at the session on Thesis Supervision. This had primarily been intended for faculty, but many graduate students attended as well, and they identified a need for greater understanding of alternative word processing hardware and software that might be used in preparing theses. This resulted in a subsequent workshop on this specific topic.

In effect the Centre now finds itself progressing into Bergquist and Phillips' third programming domain, that of Organizational Development. The projection for the next nine months is very modest, being limited to a possible management skills program for new chairmen and directors and a Mediation Skills workshop for Sexual Harassment Advisors. More extensive activity of this nature could only be achieved with some additional earmarked funding for such programs.

DEVELOPING LEGITIMACY

In retrospect it was evident that these program initiatives did conform to sound principles drawn from progressive legitimation, which is a familiar strategy in the field of Community Development. This model suggests that any change agent has to pass through three stages of developing credibility before they are in a position to influence fundamental change. The first level is to achieve legitimation as a source of maintenance behaviors, that is, undramatic but useful activities which make

the status quo of the situation easier to live with. In this particular case the workshop on Grading Essays or the various orientations to campus services would be typical examples of this first level of building credibility.

The second, or organizational, level of activity is more easily addressed once a floor of maintenance activity has been established. Interventions at this level involve modest suggestions about ways to restructure current activities, for example a workshop on techniques for editing academic papers. Eventually, when some degree of maintenance and organizational credibility has been established, the ground is prepared for interventions that are clearly change oriented: major reform of old practices or the introduction of new behaviors. In the world of faculty development this could be exemplified by a significant attempt to move faculty towards greater understanding and appropriate use of skills developed in micro-teaching workshops. These various stages of building credibility are summarized in Figure 2.

RESULTS

To date the peripheral programming approach has achieved (1) a larger profile for the Centre, (2) new constituencies of learners, and (3) an increase in the numbers of faculty members

BUILDING CREDIBILITY

A THREE-STAGE PROCESS

MAINTENANCE: Sustaining present system operation	*Orientations to services *Grading Essays
ORGANIZATION: Modest reshaping of activities	*Course planning *Voice & Oral delivery
CHANGE: Significant shifts in process & structures	*Microteaching workshops *Computer Assisted Instruction

FIGURE 2

who use the services of the Learning and Teaching Centre. In some ways this is akin to getting the horse to water—but the challenge remains of persuading the creature to drink. To put this more practically, it is evident that large numbers of faculty can be attracted to sessions on Meeting Management or Tax Planning, and now the task is to try to persuade a growing proportion of these participants to become involved in additional programs that more directly enhance their teaching.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND CHALLENGES

The program for the next academic year has developed direction from three conceptual frameworks: (1) The Target/Legitimacy Matrix, (2) a Felt-needs/Perceived-needs typology, and (3) the work of Rogers on the Diffusion of Innovation.

The Target/Legitimation Model

In Figure 3 the three domains of faculty development activity delineated by Bergquist and Phillips and the three stage model of legitimation have been combined. This has proved to be a useful tool in conceptualizing the nature of program activities to date and suggesting future areas of activity. In the following year a concentrated effort will be made to attract faculty to the teaching skills workshops (Target I, Legitimation III), to sessions on Desk Top and File Management (Target II

TARGET/LEGITIMACY MATRIX

TARGETS \ LEGITIMACY	I. Maintenance	II. Organization	III. Change
I Instructional	GRADING ESSAYS	PLANNING WORKSHOPS	MICRO-TEACHING SKILLS
II Personal	EDITING ACADEMIC PAPERS	DESK TOP & FILE MANAGEMENT	STRESS REDUCTION
III Organizational	ORIENTATIONS TO SERVICES	MEETING MANAGEMENT	COMPUTER LITERACY

FIGURE 3

and Legitimation II) and Computer Literacy (Target III and Legitimation III).

Faculty Development Needs Model

A complementary approach to program planning is based on a model of needs assessment in continuing education (Farquharson, 1978; Luft, 1970). In Figure 4, the two basic arms of the matrix reflect a difference between needs felt by the learner as contrasted with learner needs perceived by others. Thus Quadrant I includes many of the programs that run successfully because they meet needs experienced by faculty and perceived by the development office. Quadrant III includes new program needs which faculty and others have indicated to the Centre. In the case of the Centre at the University of Victoria, examples include the request of Graduate Students for a workshop on word processing and from faculty members who wished to explore methodological issues related to the teaching of content relating to women, their history, roles and experience. The strategies in Quadrant III may be characterised as "canvassing," and the mass appeal programs geared to some of the felt

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF FACULTY DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

	Known to Faculty	Unknown to Faculty
Known to Development Office	E.G. I. Pointers on Parliamentary Procedures Writing Grant Applications	Marketing: E.G. II. C.A.I.: Basic Literacy Micro-Teaching Sessions
Unknown to Development Office	Canvassing III. Teaching Content Related to Women Word Processing for Graduate Students	IV. Comparing and Imaging

FIGURE 4.

needs of faculty can be used as a forum to learn about other felt needs not previously identified by the faculty development office. In the future, as well as more traditional forms of needs surveys, a second tier of departmental representatives will be developed to complement the Advisory Committee and to relate the Centre to felt needs at the grass-roots level. The fourth and final quadrant presents a unique challenge as it represents needs that are unrecognized by both faculty and the development office. Strategies of need identification in this case include comparing one's own program offerings with those of other institutions and self-consciously developing a clear image of the challenges that may confront faculty in the near future. This could include changes in the demography of the student body, fresh advances in instructional technology and previously unrecognized pockets of unreached learning potential.

Diffusion of Innovation

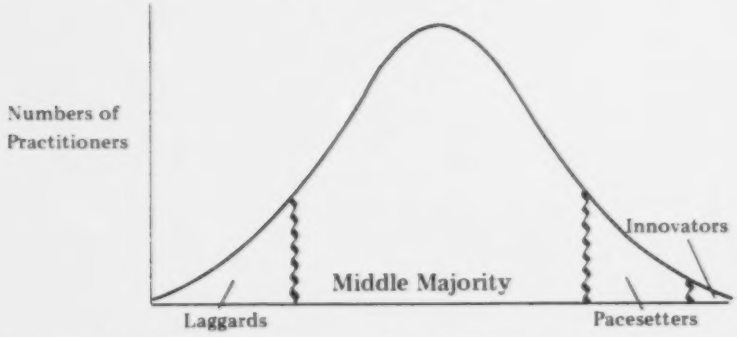
In considering ways to encourage faculty to adopt new practices, there are lessons to be learned from the literature on the diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 1983). This material describes the forces which support or impede the dissemination and adoption of new practices and sheds some light on the way in which the impact of current instructional innovations could be enhanced. For example, at the university in question, two innovations which tend to encourage the adoptions of new teaching behaviors are the advent of Distance Education methods and the introduction of Computer Assisted Instruction. In the first instance, faculty who agree to develop such distance courses are typically confronted with a course development team which will almost certainly include an instructional design specialist. Initially, there may be some difficult exchanges between members of the course team, but typically the product of their work together is not only a course *per se*, but a faculty member with a new or renewed commitment to systematic instructional design and learner-sensitive modes of delivery. These insights almost invariably seem to carry over and to impact positively on campus-based instruction. Houle (1980) builds on the work of Rogers in suggesting ways to harness the capacities of early adopters of new practices in order to promote continuing professional development. These actors are

described in Figure 5 as the Innovators and the Pacesetters and are exemplified particularly by those faculty involved in distance education and C.A.I. The challenge to the Centre is to use a variety of program strategies to enhance the spread of these innovations to the middle majority. This process has been initiated by a series of articles in the Centre newsletter describing C.A.I., several workshops for computer neophytes, and the creation of a C.A.I. Users Group composed of innovators and pacesetters. This strategy has paid off in an increased demand for C.A.I. training and a modest redeployment of resources to meet this need. The spin-off value in terms of improvement in other instructional practices is difficult to document, but there is a clear impression that this does take place as faculty come to appreciate the value of more systematic approaches to instruction.

IN SUMMARY

Faculty confront a range of competing demands on their time and talents and it is no easy task to involve them in professional development programs geared to their teaching responsibilities. However, there are two alternative strategies which can be employed to foster increased participation in such

ACTORS IN THE ADOPTION OF INNOVATIONS



Adapted from Houle (1980) p. 155. Reprinted with permission from the author and Jossey-Bass Publisher.

FIGURE 5.

learning events. The first relies on tapping faculty motivation that is not directly related to the teaching function, and the second employs the active dissemination of naturally occurring innovations in teaching. Several different models are suggested which can support this kind of program planning activity and, as the field of faculty development matures, we can expect to find more conceptual systems to support the art of current practice.

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NOTES

1. Wolke (1980) describes Personal Development programs as including: faculty orientations, interdisciplinary studies, academic exchanges, individual development plans and grants for innovative projects.

The Place of Practice-Centered Inquiry in a Faculty Development Program

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Those who study and practice college teaching have long believed that effective college teachers acquire their professional skill largely on the job, through experience and through a practical kind of inquiry that enables them to reflect on their teaching and develop ongoing plans for action. Recent scholarship on the nature of inquiry in professional practice (Argyris, 1982; Argyris, et. al., 1985; Schon, 1983), and specifically in teaching (Carr & Kemmis, 1983; Tripp, 1984; Sanders & McCutcheon, 1984), has supported this belief, offering important insights that can be used productively in conceptualizing and developing programs for faculty development. A common argument in these works is that effective professionals improve their practice through an inquiry process (which will be called practice-centered inquiry in this paper) that enables them to bring reflection to bear in the action context in which they function.

Applied to the case of faculty members, the idea is that through continually inquiring into the many puzzles, surprises, problems, and interesting situations that arise in teaching, effective faculty members build up a store of knowledge that is used to appreciate, interpret, and guide actions in new situations. This knowledge also allows them to recognize and work toward the resolution of problems in the larger environment that impact upon their work.

The frequent claims by faculty members that they learn

"through experience" or by "trial and error" offer ample evidence that faculty members recognize that a large part of their knowledge about teaching has developed through these ongoing cycles of experimentation and reflection. Their preferences for personal forms of practice-centered inquiry seem quite appropriate, since practice-centered inquiry seems to be ideally suited to their professional learning and effective performance for several reasons:

1. In practice-centered inquiry, learning is firmly grounded in a practical, concrete problem or issue that arises in teaching. This immediacy makes the problem or issue compelling for the inquiring teacher and helps to enhance the quality of the learning that takes place, since knowing what to do in subsequent situations is a significant motive for practitioners.

2. Since practice-centered inquiry arises in the teaching context, it can address the particulars of that context within the current perspective of the inquiring teacher. It is flexible enough to fit a unique teaching situation, whether it calls for a relatively formal systematic inquiry, or for intuition, casual observation, or momentary reflection. It does not assume either fixed conditions or predictability in the teaching situation, but rather a dynamic flow of events that will continually demand new responses and instances of inquiry. Thus, it can be responsive to each unique teaching situation with all its uncertainty, instability, and complexity.

3. Unlike traditional forms of inquiry, practice-centered inquiry accommodates and even demands consideration of questions of value that are so central to teaching. Inquiring faculty members are continually forced by the nature of educational situations to recognize and deal with value-laden issues. Practice-centered inquiry often raises unquestioned assumptions to a conscious level, encouraging a higher form of learning that Argyris (1982) has termed "double loop learning," learning that not only examines the immediate set of circumstances but also the framework of assumptions and concepts within which one is viewing the circumstances.

4. Practice-centered inquiry has enabling effects. When faculty members increase their understanding of what is going on

in their teaching and generate practices that are effective for them, they often feel a sense of empowerment as well as achievement. Empowerment, in turn, engenders a sense of commitment to teaching and may result in increased awareness of constraining forces in university or departmental policies (such as time schedules or grading policies) that may need improvement. Inquiring faculty members thus may become more proactive in shaping the environment at their college or university for the improvement of teaching.

Donald Schon (1983) summarizes the importance of reflection for professionals:

> When someone reflects-in-action, he becomes a researcher in the practice context. He is not dependent on the categories of established theory and technique, but constructs a new theory of the unique case. His inquiry is not limited to a deliberation about means which depends on a prior agreement about ends. He does not keep means and ends separate, but defines them interactively as he frames a problematic situation. He does not separate thinking from doing, ratiocinating his way to a decision which he must later convert to action. Because his experimenting is a kind of action, implementation is built into his inquiry. (p.68)

FACULTY USE OF PRACTICE-CENTERED INQUIRY

Most faculty members inquire into their practice, either sporadically or fairly continuously. When faced with an unexpected student response, a disappointing set of exams, or a surprisingly successful lab, they ask what set of factors might have produced the situation, and they use this knowledge in deciding future courses of action, either immediate or long-term. In this manner, faculty members build up a stock of practical knowledge, rules of thumb, expectations, and hunches that guide their practice.

Faculty use of practice-centered inquiry might be described in terms of a continuum of activities. At the lower end of the continuum are the fleeting thoughts, observations, realizations, and questions that arise during the process of teaching, such as the observation that a particular discussion topic elicited a great deal of response (and the consequent mental note to use that or similar questions again when the same result is desired).

At the middle range of the practice-centered inquiry continuum are informal types of inquiry that are somewhat sustained. For example, the professor might reflect at some length on why that particular discussion question worked or might ask some students or colleagues to suggest some reasons. The faculty member might even decide to keep some notes on specific questions used and observed responses, which would be reviewed periodically for patterns to derive some general personal guidelines for developing discussion questions.

At the high end of the practice-centered inquiry continuum are formal research studies in which the faculty member might actually develop a research design and approach the situation in a highly systematic fashion. In the example of the discussion question, the professor might arrange to experiment with a variety of questions, using the fieldnotes of a nonparticipant observer, interview data, results from a questionnaire, or test results to judge the impact of various kinds of questions under various conditions. The faculty member might analyze the results and arrive at a typology of questions or questioning principles that can inform future duscussion planning.

Because they are limited in the amount of time and energy that they can devote to teaching and because they thus tend to develop theories and routines that generally serve "well enough" in dealing with the complexities of teaching, faculty members usually use practice-centered inquiry very informally. Many reserve sustained reflection on teaching for moments of crisis or approach the examination of their practice rather unsystematically, relying on habit or tradition under everyday conditions. Furthermore, professors who have difficulty in their teaching often seem to be especially unreflective and not interested in inquiring into their teaching practices. Often, for the promise that practice-centered inquiry holds for faculty development to be realized, then, external assistance and encouragement are needed.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Helping faculty to develop a capacity and habit for engaging in ongoing systematic reflection on their practice can be seen as central to the work of faculty development. One reason for

this, as Schon (1983) points out, is that such habits can not only enable improved instruction but also professional renewal:

> When a practitioner becomes a researcher into his own practice, he engages in a continuing process of self-education. When practice is a repetitive administration of techniques to the same kinds of problems, the practitioner may look to leisure as a source of relief, or to early retirement, but when he functions as a researcher-in-practice, the practice itself is a source of renewal. (p. 29)

Because such an approach brings the developer close to the natural process through which faculty members develop new understandings of their teaching and make changes in their practice, the developer can root development activities in a context, providing an immediate frame of reference for the normal consulting activities, materials development and dissemination, and instruction on particular teaching skills that frequently account for a large part of faculty development work.

There are several ways in which faculty developers can facilitate practice-centered inquiry. Recognizing that casual reflection and inquiry will be the only course of action feasible for many faculty members, the developer can assist by providing occasions for reflection, such as conversation sessions devoted to dialogue about specific issues of practice identified by participants, periodic self-assessment through writing (Clader, 1980) or retreats, course planning meetings, and the like. Faculty members might be invited to record their "teaching puzzle of the week" or high and low points in their teaching and share these with colleagues at periodic meetings arranged by the faculty development office. Discussing videotapes of a class or results of student tests can often provide the occasion for recognizing and exploring teaching puzzles that have previously been ignored.

In the case of faculty who are ready or able to extend their inquiry activities, faculty developers can help by presenting occasions for deeper reflection and inquiry. As faculty members draw on their concepts, schemata, and theories of teaching to conceive or model an issue or problem, discussions with peers or a faculty developer can help to bring unexamined assumptions or unconscious beliefs about teaching to the point of articulation. For example, in one such discussion, a faculty member who wanted to explore how to protect exam security was stimulated by his colleagues to think through whether it was

important for exams to be surprises. He was prompted to rethink his problem at a more fundamental level and to approach his inquiry and subsequent practice in a different light. In addition to dialogue, faculty developers can promote writing, such as maintaining personal teaching journals (Oberg, 1985) as a vehicle for enhancing reflection and revealing assumptions about teaching.

Faculty developers might also encourage faculty members who can engage in more sustained inquiry to collect detailed information on the long-term effects of specific practices, emphasizing the importance of obtaining informative feedback on teaching through a variety of vehicles ranging from periodic checks with students, observation by colleagues, and careful monitoring of student work. (Wilson, et. al., 1984, provide many methods for accomplishing these activities.) The faculty developer might use a consulting session to suggest specific ways in which a faculty member might collect information that will help define problems and strengths in practice and might even offer assistance in collecting and analyzing the information that is obtained.

Periodically, for certain questions or under certain circumstances, when faculty members elect to use practice-centered inquiry in a highly sustained and systematic fashion, they can be offered assistance in the form of challenge and support at several points in the inquiry process. These phases are described below:

Framing the Inquiry Question. As faculty members shape their issue or problem into a question that can be answered by reference to things about which they may feasibly collect information, consultation with a colleague or faculty developer who has an interest and expertise in the design of research in social settings can help to frame the question in a way that will permit effective subsequent inquiry. In such a consultation, for example, a professor of art history who proposed exploring some general questions about the effects of her course on students' aesthetic understanding was encouraged to define and delimit the research question more clearly in light of what evidence could be collected. She chose to focus on the student response to different modes of presentation, a narrower but more approachable question.

Designing the Study. Similarly, faculty members can be assisted by colleagues or faculty developers experienced in research in natural settings in the selection and development of an appropriate plan for collecting, analyzing, assessing and interpreting information effectively and efficiently. Often, strategies for conducting classroom research are unfamiliar to faculty members who have specialized in other research approaches. Faculty members can be apprised of the possibilities and problems associated with survey research, naturalistic inquiry, and other approaches, and helped to think through what resources would be required for the research activities.

Collecting Information. In more elaborate instances of inquiry, when the study design calls for non-participant observation, construction of a survey instrument, test item analysis or the like, faculty members will often require technical assistance and resources to carry out their design. The developer can suggest possible sources for this assistance, such as the staff of the faculty development center, departmental support in the form of student help or financial resources, or a small grant from a teaching improvement fund.

Analyzing the Information. Examining the information and drawing inferences and meaning from it are other activities that can also be enhanced through dialogue with colleagues or a faculty developer. In one such dialogue, for example, a faculty member who chose to discuss his test item analysis with colleagues and a developer drew on their past experiences and hunches to ask deeper questions of his data and gain insights that helped him to interpret his results. Students who are willing to analyze the information from their perspective may be another source of help available to faculty members.

Interpreting the Information. Faculty members can be assisted in making sense of the findings in terms of their original inquiry question and the issue or problem from which it arose by once again having access to opportunities for dialogue with colleagues or a faculty development consultant. Such dialogue can be extremely helpful in enabling the faculty member to view the findings in light of implications for practice.

QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

While supporting practice-centered inquiry is an attractive approach to the improvement of teaching, the idea raises several questions for faculty developers to consider as they experiment with ways to promote and support faculty reflection and inquiry:

1. Since systematic practice-centered inquiry often requires such scarce resources as extensive time and technical expertise, how can a single faculty development office at a large university work toward providing enabling conditions for all faculty?
2. Is facilitating systematic practice-centered inquiry an equally appropriate approach to take with new teaching assistants, new faculty members, and experienced faculty, or is it more effective during some career stages than others?
3. Is facilitating practice-centered inquiry a more appropriate approach to use with some faculty members than others, given the range of attitudes, personal characteristics, knowledge, and skills that faculty members bring to their teaching?
4. Does isolating and cultivating a specific instance of practice-centered inquiry have any long-term impact on improving subsequent use of inquiry by the faculty member?
5. Is facilitating practice-centered inquiry an effective approach for a wide range of instructional problems or is it best used with a particular type of problem or developmental issue?
6. What techniques can help facilitators in a faculty development office assist faculty members to recognize interesting or problematic facets of their teaching and tacit assumptions that they make about teaching and learning that influence their practice?
7. If the sense of empowerment that arises in faculty discussion leads to action, will the faculty development office find itself engaged in complex organizational issues that are beyond its control?
8. How can the facilitation of practice-centered inquiry best be integrated with other faculty development activities undertaken by a faculty development office?

These issues can be addressed most fittingly through continuing inquiry by faculty developers into their own practices. As new interventions and experiences are examined and assessed, perhaps directions for future action in furthering faculty development through practice-centered inquiry will be suggested, stimulating new cycles of action and reflection that will continue to enrich the understanding and practice of faculty development.

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PART III
PRACTICE

Although it is exhilirating to flex our mental muscles in reflection and conceptualization, the real work of the profession must go on day by day. The papers in this section of the volume attack the business of development head on in a wide range of practical situations faced by all of us repeatedly.

The papers divide themselves into three audiences for our wares. The first four papers all represent development at the program level, both in terms of the development office itself and in terms of institution-wide development efforts of all sorts. The second set of three papers describes specific groups with which developers deal, from the department chairs to foreign teaching assistants to a single course revision involving several sub-groups. Finally, the last three papers in this section are directed at work with individual faculty and their special problems.

CIDR: A Small Service Firm Within a Research University

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University of Washington

As readers of this article well know, instructional and faculty development programs differ in amazing ways across the country. Some units are housed in central administration, report to a Provost or Vice President, and are financed from a University operating budget. Some are outgrowths of state legislation with special funding, and others are self-sustaining, entrepreneurial endeavors. Some units are staffed by one person only, while others may employ 20 to 25 people. The tremendous diversity makes it difficult to write an article that will be useful to the varied readers whose worlds may be very similar or very different. We hope that sharing our experience at the University of Washington will provide some new ways of thinking about instructional development issues and/or enable you to select some ideas which could be modified for your own use. We will rely on you to make the links or applications appropriate for your particular institution.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING CIDR's INSTRUCTIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Must Reflect Culture and Values of Institution

To begin with, our Center for Instructional Development and Research (CIDR) operates on the basis of two very obvious, but often overlooked, assumptions about instructional and

faculty development. First, we believe that an effective instructional faculty and development program must reflect the culture and values of the institution in which it resides. In our particular instance that means that we must work with instructors (3,500 faculty and 1,000 graduate teaching assistants) who are dedicated, in addition to teaching, to producing a very high quality of research in every discipline. The University of Washington has consistently placed among the top five institutions in the nation in the amount of federal research monies received. We are the largest research institution in the Northwest which includes the states of Oregon, Montana, Idaho, Northern California, and Alaska. Thus, this means that research dominates faculty interests and therefore attention given to teaching must be discipline-oriented and require only a limited investment of time from the individual faculty member or department. It means also that CIDR must carry on research itself in order to be credible in the eyes of its clients (the professors and instructors in each of the departments).

Organizationally, the University is hierarchical yet at the same time democratic and dependent on faculty agreement in many areas. The departments themselves, some 90 of them, are very autonomous, led by chairs, who, working with the various deans, have final authority. At the same time, faculty members (both individually and collectively) exert substantial influence on most decisions. Our administrators are dedicated primarily to responding to what the professors of this large institution desire. While central administration is very supportive of improvement of instruction, there are no central decrees from which CIDR can obtain authority. This means that CIDR must become, on its own merits, an invaluable resource to individual faculty members and department chairs since using our services is not required of anyone.

Must Help Faculty

Our second basic assumption about an instructional and faculty development program is that it ought to help people. While this comment usually brings a "guffaw" and "well, obviously," we would suggest that some faculty development programs do not do so on a practical day-to-day basis. Our goal is to make a measurable difference in the daily teaching lives of our instructors, which results in our being extremely applied

problem solvers. We do what faculty ask us to do; we attempt to solve the instructional problems that cause them the most frustration. Only after that do we attempt to attack other instructional issues. For example, we may be asked to assist an instructor who has received student evaluations indicating that she is perceived to be disorganized. She is certain it is because of her lectures. We interview students who describe her written assignments as confusing. She is not convinced so we videotape and work with her on improving her lecture until she is satisfied with her performance. Only after that do we assist in restructuring her written assignments. We believe instructors must "own" their instructional improvement efforts. We help them with issues they perceive to be important. We provide services that our clients want.

This suggests that CIDR must devise ways of using the "currency" which is of greatest value to faculty. We are forced, therefore, to look for other incentives. Our university does not provide release time, instructional development leaves, or instructional mini-grants for our instructors. We try to enable faculty to save time, procure positive student evaluations, obtain positive tenure and promotion decisions, etc. We operate on the basis of offering these items as incentives for faculty improvement efforts.

GOALS OF THE CENTER FOR INSTRUCTIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND RESEARCH

Given these two basic assumptions we have developed what we call a discipline-specific philosophy. CIDR staff believe in the integrity of subject matter. We believe that the way academics stimulate inquiry, generate knowledge and present understanding is greatly influenced by a discipline. The responsibilities of Center personnel are to act as catalysts to stimulate departments to undertake instructional improvement efforts. Center staff work together to provide services, to conduct research projects on learning and teaching, and to publish materials on instructional improvement *in order to assist departments in their efforts.*

The primary purpose of the Center of Instructional Development and Research is to encourage and support improvement of teaching and learning at the University of Washington. Representing a part of the University's commitment to

excellence in teaching, the Center operates as an active instructional resource clearinghouse to provide comprehensive assistance to the teaching scholars of this institution.

CIDR AS A SMALL SERVICE FIRM

Given this basic philosophy and the Center's goal, we soon realized that we were primarily a service organization. In fact, we began to see ourselves as a small service firm in the midst of an enormous institution. This led us to look at other service firms from which we might borrow some ideas while being constantly vigilant about reflecting the values and culture of our institution. In reviewing service firm literature, we became interested in a number of ideas which seemed very appropriate to adopt. According to the experts, some of the keys to successful service firms are:

1. The service must meet the specific needs of potential customers.
2. Effective service depends on the quality of the face-to-face encounters between customers and employees of the firm.
3. A successful service firm is highly visible.
4. Successful service firms systematically monitor customer satisfaction.

These ideas guided our evolution over the last two and a half years and permeate our organizational structure, staffing, and decision making.

Meeting the Needs of Clients

To begin with, we have always been customer-oriented. We see our customers or clients as all instructors at the University of Washington, which includes graduate teaching assistants, instructors, lecturers, teaching associates and professors of all ranks. We wanted to focus on what they wanted or needed in terms of instructional assistance. To identify what that was, we began by interviewing a wide range of university personnel —representatives of all the instructional staff, deans, department chairs, provosts and others—as to what each one felt an organization such as ours could offer the instructional staff of a major research university. Every interview brought us new

insights and new information, which finally resulted in the development of a wide range of CIDR services. It also taught us the value of being out in the departments all the time rather than expecting people to come to the Center.

The Director for Instructional Development attempts to call on the chairs of all departments on campus every two years to determine what instructional needs exist at the departmental level. To facilitate that interview, we developed a Departmental Instructional Profile, which has become an invaluable tool for assessing those needs and for establishing an instructional activity data base for the campus. Our current form is displayed in Appendix A.

The Departmental Instructional Profile attempts to describe a department solely on the basis of instructional dimensions. The Center staff collects available instructional data regarding class size, number of majors, ratio of instructors to students, student rating means by instructor rank, recognition of teaching excellence, number of student course drops, grade distributions, existence of curriculum committees, distinguished teaching recipients, etc. as indicated on the form. This allows the Director for Instructional Development to identify with the department chairperson those aspects of instruction in which the department takes great pride and can share with the rest of the university community. It is also an opportunity to determine those aspects of the instructional product where the chairperson feels additional work is required. This information is then brought back to an Instructional Development Specialist in the Center who identifies which staff member can most ably assist the department given whatever need has been suggested.

When the Center assists entire departments, a workshop and/or research project is designed for that specific discipline. For example, if a number of faculty in a department are concerned about teaching students to think critically, they may request that Center staff present a workshop on student problem solving in that particular discipline. Sometimes departments have courses that are creating difficulties for them. They may request research assistance to make recommendations for restructuring the courses. In all instances, the Center attempts to tailor the workshops or research projects for that specific department. All presentations from CIDR staff require extensive preassessment with department representatives. Specific

examples from the discipline are utilized in all cases. Given CIDR's discipline specific philosophy, we do not offer generic workshops.

An additional tool we have developed which has become very useful to us is an Instructional Interest Inventory with separate forms for instructors and for graduate teaching assistants. Departments can either administer the inventory to their own faculty or have it administered by CIDR. It is displayed in Appendix B. In this way we can identify the major needs of individuals and departments in terms of instructional improvement. Again, this information is given to the staff person who is working with the specific department for follow-up.

On the basis of the Instructional Interest Inventories, we are working toward creating a comprehensive instructional data base so that any instructor may come to CIDR, sit down at one of our micro-computers, respond to the Instructional Interest Inventory and procure a printout which will tell him or her what instructional improvement resources are available on campus. For example, if an instructor is interested in learning how to lead discussions more effectively, we would anticipate that the printout would provide a list of printed material available in CIDR, a list of media dealing with leading discussions including video and/or audio tapes, and instances in the university community where professors are particularly effective at leading discussion and are willing to be observed. Once that data is available to an instructor, then it can be used on an individual basis for a CIDR consultation.

Some instructors have special needs such as the use of computers in their teaching. For these reasons the Center maintains a microcomputer laboratory with workstations fully equipped with graphics, interactive videodiscs, and extensive networking capabilities to enable instructors to integrate computers into their instruction. Again Center staff work on an individual basis to assist instructors to develop specific computer applications useful for the teaching of their particular discipline.

Creating The Service Encounter–CIDR Staff and Instructors

As other service firms report, effective service depends on the quality of the face-to-face encounters between clients and employees. We are a people-to-people operation, and the

countless interactions between staff and clients must, for the most part, go unmonitored by the Directors. From support staff to consultants, to student assistants, to directors, we stress that every encounter determines whether or not that person returns to the Center or recommends that others seek our services. When a phone call comes into our Center, it is answered by our most knowledgeable person who is able to assist the caller immediately, log the request, make the referral and check on follow-up. Every call is returned as soon as possible. A biweekly staff meeting of our 21 part and full time members is dedicated to status reports, requests for contacts, evaluation of ideas for various projects, etc., with the primary goal of keeping everyone advised of what is happening on the various projects so that all can be active marketers for the Center. All staff represent the Center, and they must be effective in explaining to others the philosophy, goals, and specific projects undertaken by CIDR.

Staff members are given extensive training in consulting skills because a great deal of time is spent in consultation. For example, a faculty member may be concerned about his/her approach to lecturing or discussion, or an instructor may want help interpreting a set of student ratings that he/she has received. In any of these cases, Center staff consult with the instructor to determine the particular needs and choose an appropriate form of assistance. In some instances, the faculty member may be given written material from the CIDR library referencing a collection of articles, conference papers, and technical reports on all aspects of effective teaching and educational research in higher education. The library is maintained as a center resource, open to all faculty and TA's.

In other instances, the faculty member may prefer videotape consultation. Another popular service requested by individual faculty members is a type of class interview called the small group instructional diagnosis (SGID). This process uses small group discussion in the middle of the quarter to elicit feedback from students.

In some cases, consulting is a matter of providing assistance in developing course syllabi or writing assignments and exams. Whatever the approach, all faculty consultations are customized for the individual instructors and in the end, our entire operation rests in the hands of the staff who sit down with individual instructors to create and deliver any instructional service. This

service encounter determines the acceptance of and implementation of instructional change.

Establishing High Visibility

A successful service firm is extremely visible. We have worked diligently to become visible. Using interviews, brochures, and customized stationery, we have sought to make our logo and services recognizable throughout the campus. We have exerted a concerted effort to mark everything going out of the office with a highly recognizable coversheet. All reports, requests for evaluation, and other materials are packaged in distinctive CIDR covers and packets. We have produced an extensive but easily readable *Annual Report* each year which we have distributed to all Deans and Department Chairs.

Many of the instructional efforts of the Center require resource materials that are not readily available. Consequently, the Center is engaged in producing specialized publications, videotapes, and other media for these purposes. For instance, CIDR has produced publications to assist faculty and graduate teaching assistants in interpreting student ratings. Center staff also revised and published *Mentor*, the University handbook for graduate teaching assistants. Recent Center videotapes include "Distinguished Teachers on Teaching" and "The Role of the Graduate Teaching Assistant." Each of these is packaged in highly recognizable CIDR labels. We have developed brochures and widely advertised their availability.

We send numerous specifically targeted mailings each year. We attempt to address all instructors individually rather than rely on general university-wide service announcements. Besides targeting by individual scholar/teacher and departments, we also focus on new faculty and international teaching assistants as special need groups.

While it is difficult to measure the impact of these efforts, we have experienced a significant change in peoples' awareness of the existence of the Center. No longer do we hear the question, "What is CIDR?" We are constantly adding new faculty and graduate students to our client lists and receive referrals from Deans who have read our *Annual Report*.

Monitoring Client Satisfaction

We ask "users" of any and all of our services, whether an individual or a department, to assess their satisfaction with CIDR services. Included in Appendix C are two evaluation instruments we have found useful. Compulsively, we gather such feedback, analyze it, and modify our services accordingly. We believe that our instructors know best what kinds of help will be most beneficial to them. In turn, we are constantly providing them with a range of CIDR service options from which to choose.

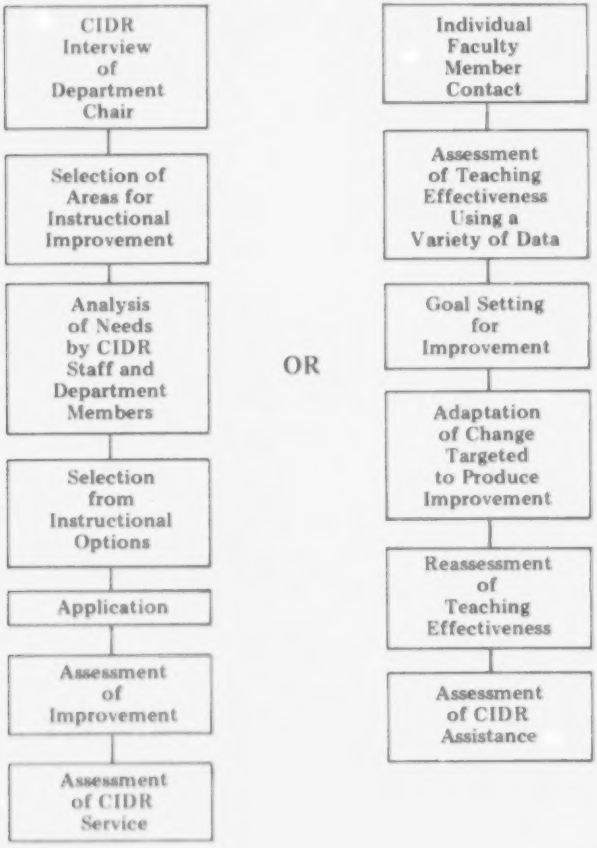
CIDR's INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT MODEL

Our small service firm approach has provided us with an operations plan for enabling the Center to offer valuable, client-centered services. Our goal is to assist instructors and departments to improve the quality of undergraduate education at the University of Washington. As diagrammed below, in all situations, we attempt to analyze instructional needs, provide alternatives, assist with implementation strategies, and assess results. We never lose sight of the importance of meeting needs of clients, providing quality consultation in our service encounters, attempting to be highly visible, and monitoring client satisfaction in order to modify the services we offer.

CIDR staff attempts to act as catalysts for instructional improvement but only in partnership with instructors who are teaching specific disciplines. We believe that we know a lot about teaching, but we do not know more about teaching chemistry, for instance, than chemistry professors do. We can assist them in that task and that is our overall goal.

At this point, we've given two-and-a-half years of our lives to this project. We know we have made a difference at the University of Washington, and we are committed to our service firm orientation. Our clients come from referrals, and the number of repeat consultations is extremely high. We are convinced that our instructors want to be effective in the classroom and that they will accept our assistance if it comes in ways which they can effectively use without their involvement requiring excessive time commitments. We know that the particular design and operation of our Center works

at our institution. We hope that it will provide some ideas useful for your efforts in your institution.


CIDR Interview of Department Chair
Selection of Areas for Instructional Improvement
Analysis of Needs by CIDR Staff and Department Members
Selection from Instructional Options
Application
Assessment of Improvement
Assessment of CIDR Service
OR
Individual Faculty Member Contact
Assessment of Teaching Effectiveness Using a Variety of Data
Goal Setting for Improvement
Adaptation of Change Targeted to Produce Improvement
Reassessment of Teaching Effectiveness
Assessment of CIDR Assistance

APPENDIX A

Center for Instructional Development and Research
University of Washington

Departmental Instructional Profile for [Department Name]:

---

*1. Number of majors and growth pattern over last few years:

*2. Number of students taking courses in department:

*3. Grade distribution:

Gradepoint requirement for majors:
Distribution by level:

100	300
200	400

*4. Undergraduate class sizes and formats:

SIZE	LEVEL	LECTURE	QUIZ	LAB	SEMINAR	PRACTICUM & INDEP. STUDY
1-20						
21-50						
51-75						
76-100						
101-199						
200-299						
300-399						
400-499						
Over 500						
Totals						

*5. Distribution of instructors by rank, student to instructor ratios.
___ Professors
___ Assoc. Professors
___ Assist. Professors
___ Instructors
___ Lecturers
___ Emeritus
Subtotal: ___
TA's: ___ Number of ITA's: ___
Total including TA's: ___

*6. Student to teaching staff ratios.
Ratio of majors to teaching staff: ___:___
Ratio of total enrollment to teaching staff: ___:___

*Data gathered before interview.

*7. Student ratings percentiles:

RANK	MEAN	NUMBER OF CLASSES
All University		
All College		
Department:		
Professor	_____	_____
Assoc. Professors	_____	_____
Assist. Professors	_____	_____
Instructors	_____	_____
Lecturers	_____	_____
TA's	_____	_____

How are student ratings used in your department? Are they required? Does the department recommend other teacher evaluation processes? How do you document a faculty member's teaching effectiveness?

8. Level of TA Training:
   *Faculty coordinator:
   Ongoing Supervision:
   Tasks TA's perform:
   Levels and types of courses involving TA's:
9. Number of applicants for programs in department:
10. Number of Distinguished Teaching Awards:
    National:
    *University of Washington:
    Departmental:
11. Past departmental documentation of teaching performance:
    How is quality teaching rewarded?
*12. Educational Assessment Center usage figures:
13. Current departmental instructional improvement efforts:
    Instructional Development Committee?
    Curricular and Course Sequence Decision Making:
    How handled? How satisfied with process?
    Undergraduate—
    MA—
    Ph.D.—
14. Individual faculty instructional projects:

15. Advising:

    How handled?

    Satisfaction level:

16. Number of drops:

    Drop rate:

17. CIDR usage:

18. Exit Surveys/Interviews; Employer Surveys/Other Feedback on instructional preparation of students (Undergrad, MA, Ph.D.):

19. Number of courses which currently require some student work with computers and approximate enrollment figures:

20. What is the number of microcomputers that you currently have in the department that can be used for instruction? How about the number of terminals to minis or mainframes that can be used for instruction? What other access to computers does the department have? For faculty? For students?

21. How many of the courses that require students to use computers, primarily require students to use those computers outside of class time?

22. How many of the courses currently have faculty using computers in the classroom to develop concepts and promote discussion?

23. Which faculty would be interested in working with the Center to develop CAI applications for courses in your department?

*24. How many W courses does the department offer? Who teaches them? Any special training involved?

*Data gathered before interview.

APPENDIX B

Center for Instructional Development and Research
University of Washington

_____ Department/Instructor Name

Faculty Instructional Interests Assessment

This form is to help you think about various aspects of teaching your discipline. Read and respond by answering the following two questions about each item.

In your opinion, how important is this skill in the teaching of your discipline?

How interested are you in receiving further information in this area?

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

****

COURSE PLANNING

1. Identifying course goals:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

2. Planning the course:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

3. Writing the course syllabus:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

4. Constructing essay tests:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

5. Constructing objective tests:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

GRADING

6. Grading written work:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

7. Grading tests:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

8. Grading oral presentations:
   Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
   Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
9. Using an alternative grading system (contract grading, criterion referenced grading, mastery learning):
   Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
   Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested

TEACHING STRATEGIES

10. Leading effective class discussions:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
11. Using the lecture method:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
12. Using small groups as a teaching method:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
13. Using instructional games and simulations:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
14. Using case studies as a teaching method:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
15. Using media in instruction:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
16. Using computers in instruction:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
17. Producing instructional videotapes:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

18. Responding to student questioning about course content:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested
19. Responding to student challenges over course procedures, grading, policies, workload, etc.:
    Not very important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important
    Not very interested 1 2 3 4 5 Very interested

20. Managing large enrollment courses:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

21. Handling office hours:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

22. Communicating interpersonally with students:

Not very important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
Not very interested	1	2	3	4	5	Very interested

Are there other areas concerned with teaching in which you would like information?

APPENDIX C

Small Group Instructional Diagnosis (SGID)

CIDR Staff _____ Name of Client _____

SGID Administered _____ Department _____

1. Small Group Instructional Diagnosis (SGID) process was adequately explained.

   STRONGLY DISAGREE STRONGLY AGREE
   1 2 3 4 5

2. SGID was an appropriate strategy to meet my instructional needs.
   1 2 3 4 5

3. Center Staff persons executed the SGID effectively.
   1 2 3 4 5

4. Center Staff person(s) reported results to me in a clear, concise, useful form.
   1 2 3 4 5

5. I intend to use the services of the Center in the future Yes No
   (Please comment on your response.)

6. I would recommend the Center to colleagues desiring to work on the improvement of teaching. Yes No
   (Please comment on your response.)

7. I would be willing to act as a resource to other instructors who may be working on similar instructional needs. Yes No

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

RECOMMENDATIONS TO CENTER STAFF:

CIDR Staff Person(s) _____ Quarter _____

Course/Concern _____ Service Provided _____

1. Center Staff personnel were very effective in understanding your particular instructional needs.

   STRONGLY DISAGREE STRONGLY AGREE

   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

2. Center Staff personnel selected or designed an appropriate plan to meet your instructional needs.

   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

3. Center Staff personnel executed the plan effectively.

   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

4. Center Staff personnel analyzed outcomes of the plan appropriately.

   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

5. Center Staff personnel reported results to you in a clear, concise, useful form.

   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

6. I intend to use the services of the Center in the future Yes No
   (Please comment on your response.)

7. I would recommend the Center to colleagues desiring Yes No
   to work on the improvement of teaching.
   (Please comment on your response.)

8. I would be willing to act as a resource to other Yes No
   instructors who may be working on similar
   instructional needs.

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

RECOMMENDATIONS TO CENTER STAFF:

When Funds Won't Stretch: Faculty and Organizational Development Projects for Miniscule Budgets

Susanne W. Whitcomb
California State University—Long Beach

When available funds and the needs for faculty and organizational development do not match, the resulting stress often is accompanied by a closing-in of the range of vision so that alternative ways of meeting needs may not be perceived. A process may take place in which the cost of each desired training event or equipment or program is computed and then items are reduced or eliminated to bring about a "balanced budget." This process may be useful at the close of a problem solving process after all options and their assets and liabilities have been examined, but when inserted at the start, it often results in a truncated plan that pleases no one and perhaps is even worse than useless because of the awareness of harsh limitations that it fosters.

What is needed is a shift of consciousness and energy away from lack—lack of funds, lack of resources, lack of support, lack of personnel—to a concentration on all the possible actions that would move a program toward effective operation.

Intention—declaration—action: these unlock the door and make movement possible. In turn, the movement generates a flow of energy, bringing in the ideas and resources necessary to accomplish the goal. There is acknowledgement that problems and slowdowns will arise, but in this process a barrier or a block is not judged as a failure, but as an irritation on the road to success. Negative events and circumstances have only as much power as we give to them.

This paper describes no and low cost faculty development and organizational development ideas which can be adapted to circumstances in a variety of institutions and departments. These ideas are clustered around six basic questions which emerged from a review of faculty responsibilities for teaching, curricular development, research and scholarly activities, and university and community service.

A. How can we provide an intellectually stimulating environment for the faculty when we can't afford to bring in big-name speakers?

1. Faculty who are being interviewed for possible hire are often invited to give presentations to department faculty and others in the school. This gives faculty on the home campus an opportunity to assess the teaching style and methods of the applicant, as well as gain some exposure to different teaching techniques.
2. An "Executive in Residence" program has been developed in some schools with the assistance of their advisory boards. An expert in a particular field from the community is scheduled during a semester to confer with faculty and students, speak to classes, speak to faculty, and sometimes teach one course.
3. When faculty attend conferences, they are encouraged to commit themselves ahead of time to a report-back session to share what they have learned with their colleagues.
4. Some universities use an interim day between semesters to present a program of seminars by the faculty for the faculty. These address issues and topics of interest to faculty.
5. In some institutions, faculty applying for promotion give presentations on their research activities to faculty in the department, school and university community.
6. Faculty who present papers at regional or national meetings also may be invited to present the same paper to home campus colleagues.
7. When there are not enough resources to bring in specialists or consultants, one possible answer is to recruit a visiting professor for one semester or one year. This person, in addition to teaching, might provide orientation to new techniques for department faculty, train or re-train faculty in new technology,

assist a department in setting up a new program, or assist with preparations for accreditation visits.

B. How can department faculty provide their own feedback and inservice training without a formally designated development person?

1. In some departments ad hoc committees of faculty teaching the same course have met regularly to share exercises, short cuts, and teaching strategies. They have discussed such topics as ways to cut down on the time it takes to read and score essays without loss of effective evaluation; how to encourage increased classroom discussion; what current issues relate to class content; how to encourage students to develop computer skills through class assignments. A similar plan is an informal program of brown bag lunches with conversation focused on a different issue or topic each week. In some universities, "Teaching Circles" are formed of five or six faculty, including at least one new teacher. These persons share materials, visit one another's classes, and meet to discuss teaching techniques that work.

2. In a faculty mentor program, a senior professor is usually teamed with a newly hired faculty member. This one-on-one relationship can provide information about local campus mores, how to prepare for advancement in the ranks, how to enhance classroom teaching skills, and the resources available on campus in a variety of support areas. Sometimes the mentors of new faculty present a workshop in the spring to share successful processes and practices. Sometimes mentoring aspects are made available to all faculty, with voluntary programs where faculty act as resources to other faculty by visiting classes or being visited, by giving feedback, and by giving presentations.

3. Faculty acknowledged by their peers as exceptional teachers and scholars have been videotaped in the classroom. Sometimes this tape will have voice-overs by the instructor explaining the rationale for certain activities and the main point of the session being taped. These tapes are viewed by interested faculty at brown bag discussion sessions.

4. In some institutions, research on teaching is done in cooperation with students in research courses.

5. Some faculty groups have formed Quality Circles to

deal with issues of interest and concern. At the University of Ottowa, Quebec, Canada, faculty circles deal with teaching issues. In the process, the group identifies problems, analyzes the problems, gathers data, displays the information to the entire circle, selects one problem, selects causes, brainstorms possible solutions, and develops an action plan to present to the appropriate decision-makers. Sometimes the quality circle process can be applied in the classroom itself, to address concerns that either the students or the instructor bring up.

6. A process called Small Group Instructional Diagnosis (SGID) was developed by Joe Clark of the University of Washington. At the invitation of an instructor, a group interview of a class is conducted by a faculty member trained in the process, to provide feedback for the instructor. This has produced very positive comments both from faculty members visited and students.

7. A Faculty Advocate System is used in some institutions in which a person in each department serves as an advocate for faculty development.

8. A process in which articles and papers are circulated among a network of persons with similar interests can result in collaboration and sharing of scarce resources.

9. Some schools schedule regular seminars in which faculty share research findings with colleagues. These may be formal presentations, or informal "brown bag" meetings. A part of these sessions may include tips on funding for research.

10. Another type of seminar gives an opportunity for a faculty member to present a working paper and get feedback and ideas from colleagues before the paper is submitted for review.

11. Some schools have a person designated as "match maker" to match faculty interest and expertise with grant announcements and other faculty interested in the same area.

12. Part of the faculty mentor program often addresses the ways new faculty can get involved in service to the University through committee work or other means.

13. Some universities encourage "grass roots" groups of faculty across disciplines to hold informal seminars/colloquia around certain themes, e.g., new paradigms, active learning, values of the university, etc.

14. In some locations, an internal capital campaign has

raised needed funds for faculty development. Faculty and staff were asked to designate donations for the faculty development program as an income tax write-off.

15. A carefully documented plan for working with part-time or adjunct faculty will save much time and energy on the part of all parties. An ounce of orientation will save a pound of tangled misunderstandings.

16. Another time and energy saver (remembering that time is money) is the creation of a department procedures notebook built with input from department, school and staff members and regularly updated. In addition to clearly spelling out procedures and practices, it could show the reference, and the name and campus phone of the person to contact if there are additional questions. A summary book with policies listed alphabetically makes a quick reference for faculty members as well as staff members.

C. How can department funds be conserved and effectively utilized?

1. Regular meetings, at least twice a month, of department chairs and the dean makes possible clarification of the budget process so that deadlines are not missed in which department monies revert to higher levels of administration, and so that information on cost saving measures can be quickly disseminated. These regular meetings work well if they are informal, yet focused, action oriented, solution centered, adhere to the published time schedule, and regularly follow up on action decisions. In addition, when the minutes are distributed to all faculty, it is an excellent communication tool.

2. Departments which develop procedures which assist units to carefully document use of funds and other resources and which shows the benefits and results of these expenditures often find themselves in a position to more easily request and receive additional support as opportunities arise.

3. Quality Circles have been effective in many organizations in achieving cost-effectiveness.

4. Faculty trained in accounting or other financial skills can assist schools and departments in setting up systems that work well for administrators and staff. Faculty trained in programming and other computer skills can create programs

to monitor and balance expenditures daily or weekly. They can also train persons to use these programs and procedures.

5. Some plant operations divisions are beginning to set up systems where departments can do some services for themselves, without being required to send in a work order and use the services of a carpenter, electrician, painter, or computer technician. If the department can show that the job is simple and that there is a person capable of handling it, then permission is granted to do it "in house."

6. When travel funds are low, senior faculty members who are making presentations at national meetings may double as recruiters, interviewing persons who may be interested in applying for positions in the department.

D. How can we get input for the continuous revitalization of curriculum and also meet the community's needs for our graduates as "state of the art" professionals?

1. Some large corporations have developed innovative programs in which the company encourages specialists—engineers, computer specialists, statisticians—to teach one or more classes during work time at the company expense. The company donates the time during work hours, and the employee donates time for preparation and grading. The equipment and processes used by the corporation let faculty and students know what is expected by potential employers of students, and the companies often loan equipment to the campuses.

2. To assist with classroom instruction, some businesses and organizations have donated software and funds to departments and faculty members. Their reasoning is that the software with which the students become familiar in their college days will be their preference after graduation.

3. In some schools, an all-day workshop is held for all members of department and school curriculum committees at both the graduate and undergraduate levels, with the department chairs, the dean, and associate dean. Also invited to this all-day session are persons from organizations in the community who are the potential employers of the students in the discipline, who act as advisors during the process of addressing curriculum issues during the morning. After lunch, the advisors from the community usually leave, and the session becomes an

active work period to develop the changes needed to update the department course offerings in line with the long-term goals of the school and university.

4. Some schools have faculty intern programs in which faculty work in the community in a discipline-related field in the summer or during other breaks.

5. A school or department "match maker" can match community needs with faculty expertise and interest.

6. Some universities have an exchange program in which faculty and external advisors spend a day or two on each other's jobs. This facilitates the process of mutual understanding of community needs and the ability of the university to respond.

7. Advisory Boards can provide feedback on community needs and assist in projects such as workshop sessions for the community on specifically identified topics of interest.

8. When a national figure comes to the campus, a breakfast session with community leaders is a valued opportunity for interaction and strengthens the university-community alliance.

9. Many departments have an Advisory Board in addition to School and University Advisory Boards. Persons from the specialized field in the community can provide valuable insights into the future of the profession and current issues that may affect the field. They can also provide contacts for student and faculty internships and speakers for special occasions.

E. What are ways in which a University on a miniscule budget can facilitate faculty and staff development?

1. Many universities offer processes to enable faculty to retool themselves. Assigned time out of the classroom is sometimes available for projects to improve teaching areas. A fee waiver system is also available many places, in which faculty and staff may enroll in courses on the home campus or in cooperating institutions with the normal fees waived.

2. Cooperative projects across school lines can provide benefits for all involved. A cooperative project between a Human Resources Management department in the School of Business Administration and the Radio-TV department in the School of Fine Arts made possible the production of video vignettes to provide training in analysis of leadership styles and

their consequences. These tapes were used in the classroom as a common experience preceding exercises and analysis papers, and also gave Fine Arts students experience in acting, directing, producing and editing video segments. These students had copies of the tape segment they worked on to back up experiences listed on their resumes and also got project credit as part of their course work.

3. Some institutions have established a University Academy to bring people together to foster interdisciplinary research and exchange.

4. Some universities have a day between semesters designated for inservice training by faculty for faculty. Some of these sessions deal with the "how tos" of research as well as other special topics.

5. Some colleges and universities have been successful in developing and using a no or low cost personalized Professional Development Plan. A personalized activity plan spells out goals for one year, five years, and a career plan.

6. When training funds are low, the few events that are scheduled can be videotaped, allowing replay for those who missed the event and a replaying several months later for reinforcement or orientation of new employees. One videotaped event on stress reduction included both concepts and exercises. Replaying of this tape is useful just before the start of each semester, when distressed students descend on department staff and on University "window workers." Other useful sessions to tape deal with pay procedures and any process where numerous errors have occurred.

7. Another money-saver is to approach faculty who are in need of university service experiences as they advance through the ranks and who have expertise that would be helpful for staff. Faculty from Management and Psychology have led "Window Workshops" for persons behind windows who get the brunt of student upsets from long lines and tangled schedules. Other faculty have led Time Management workshops, Stress Management workshops, noon-time exercise sessions, noon-time meditation sessions, and Conflict Management workshops.

8. Quality Circles have been very successful with specialized staff groups. One Purchasing Department moved the turnaround time of papers coming in from 23 days to 4 days by using this approach. Other groups have saved money by finding less

expensive ways to meet their needs. Examples of such groups are extension staff, custodial staff, building and grounds staff, campus services, and environmental systems.

9. Faculty from any part of the campus who have received training as facilitators can work as in-house process consultants for departments, rather than bringing in outside consultants.

F. How can we encourage a mutually supportive university-community relationship?

1. In one instance where there was a lack of adequate funding for student services, a program called "Adopt a Student" was created with the assistance of an advisory board. With community business persons acting as mentors, this program has been especially effective with minority students. Another project linked professional women with foreign women students.

2. Specialty advisory boards also take the place of outside consultants. These can be in management of information systems, accounting, theater arts, hotel management, engineering management, dietetics, social work, etc.

3. Organizations and individuals in the community are often pleased to contribute services or funds for special research projects or the presentation of papers. They also can provide help in designing or printing brochures, and contacts in the industry can sometimes provide airplane passes to assist faculty in presenting research papers at national meetings.

4. Some organizations are able to loan equipment needed for research projects for periods of six months or more.

5. Some institutions circulate a list of faculty members available to speak to community groups as a public service. The brochure often lists the topics in which the faculty are specialists.

Budget problems are common in almost every aspect of life today, whether it is the public or private sector. However, valued goals should not be abandoned arbitrarily. A multitude of options exist in which all participants win—those who give and those who receive. There is support available for those creative practitioners whose dreams exceed their bank accounts.

Getting Development Underway Through Faculty Involvement

Dean Hustuft
Moorhead State University

I had just accepted a new position, an assignment of starting a faculty/instructional development program. Now where does one begin? How can faculty support be generated? Certainly there are people on the campus who are willing to work at developing and promoting improved teaching and learning, but how can they be identified? This paper describes how the author, newly arrived at a university, was able to get faculty support for development by involving them directly in the process.

Stated succinctly, a faculty development committee was organized to work with me, the faculty/instructional developer. The creation of this committee was achieved in the following way: first, meetings were arranged with the academic deans and department chairs to become acquainted with them and talk about their views on faculty development. At the University, faculty growth and development is regarded as an important criterion in the promotion and tenure process. Therefore development is a concern, either directly or indirectly, to most people on campus. The concerns they spoke about were very real and concrete. The next step was to create and distribute a survey instrument that was used to get input from faculty members. The results from this survey were rank-ordered to identify those problems and interests that were most common throughout the University. Viewpoints from department chairs

and the deans, together with the results from the faculty survey, comprised the points that were used to request the formation of a faculty development committee. A meeting was arranged with the president of our local faculty association to review the information. This step was an important one to take because it is the faculty association's representatives who recommend new committees and people to serve on them. Members of the executive committee of the faculty association were supportive of the request, and the committee was created, with the approval of the administration.

Once a year our faculty members are asked to indicate which committees they are interested in serving on. This information is passed on to the president of the University, who makes the committee assignments. This was the procedure we used to constitute the faculty development committee and to obtain its charge.

The committee serves as an advisory group to the faculty/instructional development officer. It consists of nine faculty members and the Dean of Instructional Resources. Proposals and recommendations may come from any member of the faculty or from within the committee. However it is the faculty/instructional development officer who provides the direction and leadership for the campus community.

COMMITTEE INPUT

Visibility for the faculty/instructional development program was chosen as the first priority of the committee. There was strong support among committee members to sponsor a day of faculty recognition, a day which would be proclaimed as a celebration of excellence in the classroom. This concept became the centerpiece for the committee's deliberations. Discussions were upbeat from the very start. Soon the focus was expanded to include students in the day's activities. The level of interest shown by committee members affected planning in a positive way. Their exuberance was shared among colleagues, and a feeling of anticipation began to build.

Committee members felt it would be valuable for the faculty to meet away from the campus, where there would be no telephone calls or other routine interruptions. A distance from campus would let participants have an opportunity to

develop and exchange ideas without any need to break away from the group because a problem had come up. Faculty members would be randomly assigned to small discussion groups. This way insights and successful classroom experiences could be shared with people from different disciplines and departments. Small groups limited to 20 persons each were proposed to facilitate intra-group communication. Three topics were chosen from the faculty interest survey as areas for discussion: education and cultural values, student growth and development, and creativity in the classroom. Committee members felt these topics, which were of interest to a majority of those who responded to the survey, were also sufficiently general in nature to allow persons with different academic emphases to share their perspectives with others in the group.

A separate convenor was chosen for each topic. Convenors were selected from within the randomized groups and were people who indicated their willingness to preside over the discussion of one particular topic. Thus each convenor conducted only one group session. Recorders were also chosen for each small group and were asked to keep a record of the discussions and the issues which were raised.

Members of the faculty development committee were asked to recommend a keynote speaker for the day. We felt this person should be from another campus and have a solid reputation in his or her field. The speaker should also be able to work comfortably with small groups of people. The committee wanted the keynoter to mingle with people after setting the theme for their opening round of discussions. Each person suggested by committee members was given consideration. Finally an invitation was extended to Dr. Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, who chairs the Committee on Human Development and who also chairs the Department of Behavioral Sciences at the University of Chicago, His talk was entitled "Enjoyment and the Transmission of Culture," a theme which complimented the topics chosen for the small group discussions.

It was decided to call this event "Learning Awareness Day." The name was chosen for its descriptive nature. We wanted to accomplish three goals on this day: to reaffirm the quality of teaching that takes place on the campus; to focus our attention upon concerns about teaching and learning we hold in common; and to establish the faculty/instructional

development office as a place where people might come whenever they are interested in achieving even greater success in their teaching. This would be a day during which the faculty would collectively appraise their teaching efforts.

A brief training session was scheduled for those who agreed to serve as convenors. Parameters and guidelines for each of the three sessions were provided to the convenors along with a reprint of a recent article by the keynote speaker. A mailing was used as a followup to the session. Convenors were asked to keep the committee's guidelines in mind as they focused their group's deliberations. The faculty development committee felt that too much structure might be counterproductive. We wanted the exchanges to develop as spontaneously as possible.

The committee's proposal for a day celebrating excellence in the classroom was presented to the administration for review and approval. Following some minor changes in the approach and structure, the administration chose to release classes for the day, subject to each faculty member's discretion. Some classes, such as those which feature laboratory sessions or large lectures meeting only once or twice a week, were accommodated. Instructors who felt their classes would be irretrievably set back were similarly accommodated. Other faculty were urged to attend the day-long session.

Major plans were complete. A faculty retreat would be convened at a local conference center, while our students would attend a series of sessions dealing with life-long learning issues held on the campus. Documents were made available to report student attendance and indicate the particular sessions that were attended. These forms could be presented to a student's instructors at the next scheduled class meeting.

The administration provided the resources necessary to insure the day's success. Department chairs and academic deans were canvassed to obtain faculty rosters, including adjunct and part-time faculty. These names were put into a computer file which was used to generate the randomly designated discussion group assignments. The same file system was used to print out name tags for each person, denoting the specific discussion group to which he or she had been assigned and listing each person's department.

Publicizing the Event

Members of the faculty development committee believed the day must be well publicized to underscore our goal of making Learning Awareness Day an event of major importance to the university community. We wanted to make the point that this day would be more than "just another workshop."

The student newspaper agreed to run an article announcing the day and followed this with a series of interviews featuring faculty and administrators. Some of the interviews conveyed feelings of anticipation. Others were skeptical that something like this would work. An editorial endorsing the event was included as a part of the series.

A press release was sent to the local daily newspaper highlighting the goals and format for the day. This release included background information about the keynote speaker. Arrangements were made to have local television news reporters include stories on Learning Awareness Day during their broadcasts and a press conference was scheduled on the day of the event. The press conference featured the keynote speaker interacting with faculty members during a question and answer session.

Local media representatives were willing to cooperate in providing this publicity because the idea of releasing classes for one day was unique in our area. Also, people in the University's service region are interested in education at all levels. Stories that involve local educational institutions are well received by readers and viewers.

A letter was sent to each faculty member from the faculty development committee explaining in detail the events planned for Learning Awareness Day. The tone of the letter was one of excitement and anticipation. A second mailing was sent to the faculty a week before the event, in the form of a brochure which gave details of the schedule. A second printing of the brochure was made available at the registration table of the retreat site.

LEARNING AWARENESS DAY

Learning Awareness Day began with a brief welcome from the President of the University. Several interested faculty and administrators from neighboring institutions had accepted our invitation to join the activities. The President was able to

acknowledge their presence as well. The author, as faculty/instructional development officer, greeted those who were in attendance, reviewed the committee's goals for the day, and presented the keynote speaker. Dr. Csikszentmihalyi's talk paralleled an article he had recently published and which had been given to the convenors during the training session.

The first small group discussion was an extension of the keynote speech. Since convenors were familiar with the points of the speech beforehand, the transition into the first session went smoothly. Some of the discussion groups sought to amplify the keynoter's remarks. Other groups preferred to critique the comments based upon their own experiences and perceptions. Still other groups used the keynoter's points as a bridge to discuss related concerns. But people were talking—and they were sharing ideas. The model chosen for Learning Awareness Day was beginning to work as planned.

Session two shifted focus to the growth and development of our students. In reviewing reports from the recorders of these discussion groups, it was interesting to observe the parallels that emerged from one discussion to the next. Faculty from many of the discussion groups (and from a majority of the departments) cited common student characteristics, perceived problems, and similar kinds of steps that were being used to resolve the problems. The fact that these views and operations were derived independently, for the most part, reinforced the percept that quality teaching was taking place across the campus.

The afternoon session focused upon creativity in the classroom. Several observations can be made about this session. First, none of the discussants felt they were able to define creativity in a manageable way. That being the case, the discussions turned to innovative classroom procedures. A sharing of experiences and personal philosophies of education was manifested. Recorders indicated the pleasure faculty expressed over new ideas, ideas they were willing to put to use. Some of the techniques were carefully picked apart, providing additional insights and revealing shortcomings. This was peer exchange in its finest hour. A number of the discussion groups asked the faculty development committee to do even more with this particular topic in the future.

Learning Awareness Day was concluded with a half-hour

session recapping the events. The Vice President for Academic Affairs for the University presided over this segment and was joined by the keynote speaker. Together they gave their views of what had taken place and its value to both the University and to individual faculty members.

ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

Follow-up activities were essential, since it was intended that this day of celebration of classroom excellence would also be a springboard event for future plans. Faculty were sent an evaluation form to assess Learning Awareness Day. The items on this form were open-ended because the committee members wanted input rather than just a group of check marks. We wanted to know how well we had done, of course, but we also wanted to know what we could do better or differently in the future. Information was compiled from the evaluation and from the recorders. A report was assembled and distributed to each academic department, each academic dean, and to members of the central administration.

Responses to Learning Awareness Day were supportive, with 83 percent of the respondents indicating their approval of the committee's work. Approximately this same number felt a similar event should be planned again. Useful suggestions were offered regarding alternative models, sites, and topics.

A second instrument, designed to provide input for committee activities, was included with the evaluation instrument. This was a simple checklist that could be used to indicate issues and interests that should be pursued by the faculty/instructional development officer and members of the committee. Among those topics receiving the most support from respondents were student evaluation of classroom teaching, classroom climate (as it affects minority and female students), the development of critical thinking skills among students, and learning styles.

Based upon the level of support obtained from the faculty, the author decided to begin plans for a follow-up session concerned with learning styles. A member of the psychology department who is respected for her work in this area agreed to participate. This session has been planned for later in the academic year.

A faculty resource file has been compiled also. This file

contains the names of people with expertise in aspects of the teaching/learning process who are willing to share their knowledge with other faculty. The author serves as a liaison and brings together faculty with an expressed interest in a topic and those who are able to provide guidance. This concept is proving to be useful for a number of reasons. In the beginning, we were interested in identifying people who could preside over sessions that address the areas identified in the interest checklist. But we have found the file to be most useful for short term needs. Individuals who have perceived needs can be put into immediate contact with someone who can provide help. A one-to-one working relationship is established. The faculty resource file is proving to be an effective way to keep faculty/instructional development a visible part of the university. A person who teaches philosophy may join with someone from the English department and another person from mathematics to work on strategies for developing critical thinking skills among students.

Several faculty members indicated an interest in developing a central location where they might congregate to discuss classroom concerns and issues. Interest in this concept was high enough that a subcommittee of the faculty development committee has been organized to investigate such a center. Another subcommittee is working out a proposal for a program that will provide some kind of tangible recognition for outstanding teaching.

This writer has seen an increase in the number of invitations for classroom visits. Upon request, the teaching performance is video recorded. Later the tape is reviewed with the faculty member. Afterwards the faculty member may either retain the tape or it is erased. In no case is it retained in the faculty/instructional development office without the faculty member's permission. In other situations a paper and pencil evaluation form is provided for use by students to assess classroom teaching. Results of these evaluations are reviewed with the faculty member upon request. A third technique being used is a self-analysis instrument for the faculty member. Those responses may then be correlated with the student evaluations as an estimate of how well the course objectives are being realized.

New instructional development projects have been inaugurated as the result of exchanges made during Learning Awareness

Day. One entire course in behavior modification is being produced on video tape. A series of video tapes are being produced on management techniques. The energy management department is producing a series of multi-media programs concerned with energy conservation issues. Also in the planning stages are instructional units in education, accounting, English, and history. The administration has asked the author to expand his area of responsibility by taking a more direct role in assisting faculty members to obtain instructional grants. And finally, two-thirds of the members of the faculty development committee asked to be reassigned to the same group for a second year.

FINAL OBSERVATIONS

In one year's time the faculty development committee, working with the author, was able to plan Learning Awareness Day and then use that event as a means for establishing the viability of the faculty/instructional development program. Follow-up activities to benefit interested faculty members have been arranged, and more are being developed. We now know many of the interests and concerns of both faculty and administrators. This day celebrating excellence in the classroom was a faculty project from its inception. The day was planned by the committee, and each member fulfilled tasks assigned by the developer to make it a success. Committee members have joined others from the faculty and administration in endorsing plans for a similar kind of day in the future.

A solid working relationship between the faculty and the developer has been created. Nearly two dozen classroom improvement projects, both small and large in scale, have been initiated because of the attitude towards development that was cultivated one day in January.

Input from the grass roots level is absolutely necessary to create the interest level and expectancies that profoundly affect faculty and instructional development programs. It is equally vital to pursue contacts once they have been made—as rapidly as possible. Follow-up visits with each academic dean and department head have taken place or are scheduled to take place.

Perhaps the most important outcome from working with a faculty committee is the interest that evolves in faculty/instructional development. Faculty committees do require time to assemble themselves and to function. Agendas must be set and agreed to. Sometimes it is necessary to prod people to move ahead with their deliberations. And, of course, the developer must do his or her homework to sustain the energy level of the committee. But faculty committees will return dividends for the time and work invested by a faculty/instructional developer. Committee members share their interest in projects with colleagues, and this excitement reaches the administration. The end result is a network of support that draws other faculty members into the program. They may be people who are willing to share their particular talents with others. Or they could be good instructors who want to do things even better in their classrooms, It could be a group of people who would like to meet together from time to time and discuss specific educational issues. Whatever the reason or concern, a faculty committee can play an important part in faculty/instructional development. There is no reason why a developer should struggle along alone when there are so many benefits to be accrued from involving others with the program.

Using Interviews in Development Programs for Beginning Teachers

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Persuading teachers to participate in programs and activities designed to improve teaching effectiveness is a persistent problem faced by teacher development co-ordinators (Geis and Smith, 1979). Designing workable development programs for beginning teachers, in particular, is especially challenging and critical. In what follows, we attempt to make the case for using semi-structured interviews with beginning teachers, both to gather information concerning their views on teaching and to initiate contact with them on behalf of a teacher/GTA Development Program.

THE ADVANTAGE OF THE BEGINNING TEACHER

Beginning teachers are in a unique and advantageous position with respect to the task of effecting successful interactions with their students, in that they were not long ago (and in many cases still are) students themselves. They know, *really* know, what it's like to be a student out there in a classroom listening to a teacher.

Unfortunately, when students become teachers they may spend virtually all their time trying to learn what they conceive to be the "role of the teacher," while ignoring the fact that teaching is really about reaching students! They're so busy trying to become "teachers" (e.g., by emulating other teachers,

by focusing solely on materials and methods while forgetting about student needs, etc.) that they fail to do the job of facilitating student learning.

Compounding the problem, by the time most students enter graduate school they have largely internalized the same values and attitudes about teaching that most older faculty members hold (Bess, 1978). That is, they think of teaching as a "task" that must be performed and then set aside, so they can get on with their research interests.

Recent research, however, indicates that beginning teachers *can* be influenced to modify their attitudes about teaching if intervention occurs early enough in their teaching careers. In spring 1983, the authors conducted an interview study of graduate teaching assistants (GTAs) at a large private university in the Midwest. Our results support the optimistic position that beginning teachers are, in fact, on the right track with respect to many of their initial ideas about teaching. Here are some of our major findings:

(1) Beginning teachers pay close attention to student feedback in evaluating their own teaching performance;
(2) They express great concern about the quality of their presentations to students;
(3) They point to experiences with students as what stands out for them in their experience as teachers;
(4) They want training in how to meet student needs (if they want training at all); and
(5) They seek to create a "comfortable" learning environment for students through the use of humor, excitement, and stimulating interaction (McGill, Shaeffer and Menges, 1984).

All of this leads us to believe that, despite institutional pressures that de-emphasize the importance of teaching relative to research, new teachers *want to* and *do* take teaching seriously. Development programs are well advised to *reinforce* the essentially "correct" ideas about teaching that beginning teachers already seem to possess. We suggest that the interview can serve as an important vehicle for such reinforcement.

THE CASE FOR THE INTERVIEW

One of the things that struck us during our study was that GTAs really seemed to enjoy talking with us about teaching. The excitement that the interviews seemed to elicit suggested to us that interviews might also be useful as tools in teacher development programs. GTAs, we noticed, seemed more willing to talk about teaching in a one-on-one situation than in a group of their peers, although participating in the interviews also tends to lay a nice foundation for subsequent group discussions in seminars on teaching. The interview also boasts the following important advantages as part of a beginning teacher development program:

1) Interviews recognize the teacher's particular situation. While teachers share many traits in common as members of the same profession, all teachers nevertheless differ from each other in important respects. In addition, all teaching situations are in some sense unique. In order to identify the needs of beginning teachers in the *particular* teaching situations in which they find themselves, we need at some point to *ask them* what they need.

2) New teachers feel tentative at times. The interview, if it focuses upon experiences teachers have had prior to teaching, can point out to them that they in fact have skills (that they may not know they had) that they can bring to bear in teaching.

As sociologist Erving Goffman points out:

> When the individual [moves] into a new position in society and obtains a new part to perform, he is not likely to be told in full detail how to conduct himself, nor will the facts of his new situation press sufficiently on him from the start to determine his conduct without his further giving thought to it. Ordinarily he will be given only a few cues, hints, and stage directions, and it will be assumed that he already has in his repertoire a large number of bits and pieces of performances that will be required in the new setting (Goffman, 1959, pp. 72-3).

One thing that development personnel can do, then, is to help new teachers identify which of their previous experiences may have involved the use of skills transferrable to teaching and how those skills may be transferred.

3) Change, growth, and learning all come from within. The interview encourages new teachers to begin their own

thought processes concerning where they are and where they would like to go in their teaching.

4) The interview builds rapport. The interviewer and the interviewee have shared, in some ways, an "intimate" experience with each other that they now hold in common and which they can use as the basis for building a relationship. The new teacher now has a personal contact with a member of the teacher development staff whom they can feel free to call upon when needed.

5) The interview is not didactic. New teachers, by and large, don't recognize pedagogy as a discipline. They usually will *not* take steps on their own to learn about teaching. They don't take education classes, and they usually won't attend seminars. But they will, in fact, talk at great length about teaching *if you ask them to.*

6) As teachers, we all advocate "starting at the level of the learner." If we want to train new teachers, this point remains just as valid, even though our "students" are teachers to others. The interview allows us to assess the "level" at which new teachers stand with respect to their knowledge about teaching and enables us to design individualized training programs to meet the unique needs for training that each new teacher brings with them.

There are, of course, additional reasons to use interviews. For example, they encourage active participation rather than passive listening, they're personal instead of anonymous, and so on. In the appendix, we present a sample interview schedule (adapted from the one used on our study of GTAs) that could be used or modified for use in other teacher development programs.

The Interview in the Context of an Experience-Based Development Program

The case for the interview is based in part on a belief in the value of using personal experience as a guide for the design of teacher development programs. Let's face it--when others make suggestions about how to design development programs, we often tend to take those ideas with a grain of salt. But if we take a moment to think about our own experiences, we can (re)discover, through simple reflection, what things have worked for us. That certainty of knowing what *will* work, in at least

one case, can be a good starting point for designing development programs.

To illustrate this principle with respect to the use of interviews, take a moment to reflect upon your own experiences with opinion surveys and other informal types of interviews. As you participate in an interview, it is difficult, for example, not to feel somewhat flattered that someone has taken an interest in you and your ideas. Or perhaps you've found that as you dig into your mind for answers, you sometimes display an expertise you weren't aware you possessed. Or that you've been provoked into new thoughts as a result of being asked point-blank questions you may have never seriously considered before in a systematic way.

Here is an illustration. At the beginning of the 1984 POD conference, many of us had the opportunity to get together in pairs and briefly interview each other about our expectations for the conference. This exercise revealed at least three things about the use of interviews: 1) they are good for breaking the ice with a person you don't know; 2) they enable you to learn something about someone else; and 3) they tell you things about yourself that you either may not have admitted before, or of which you may not have been fully aware. The moral here is that through interaction with another person we learn more about ourselves—more perhaps than if we had just thought about a set of questions on our own. Talking with another person forces us to deal with questions and make a solid case for our responses, which is important.

With respect to "experience-based" development programs, the point is twofold. First, to the extent that we can design development programs from principles derivable from personal past experiences, we should do so. This builds a sense of confidence into our programs that may mean the difference between success and failure. This is not to say that books, experts, or theories are never useful! Rather, we are saying that it is important not to forget that our own experiential knowledge can be helpful as well. Second, the use of interviews makes the program *itself* experiential, which again enhances the possibilities for its success.

INTRODUCING INTERVIEWS INTO TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Let us suggest how the interview might fit into an overall Beginning Teacher/GTA development program. We make the following recommendations:

1) *Program input.* An interview with the new teacher should take place *early* in a program of teacher development. Doing this early sends a clear message to the beginning teacher that says: "we want your input." Give teachers a chance to teach several classes before conducting the interview, but catch them while the job is still novel enough that they are interested in both thinking about and tinkering with their approach to teaching.

2) *Staff-teacher rapport.* The interview should be conducted by someone who is perceived either as an "expert" or as "concerned" with teaching and learning and who feels comfortable talking about teaching with respect to the subject matter being taught by the beginning teacher. This helps to elicit responsible and searching answers to the questions being asked in the interview.

3) *Feedback to teachers.* If possible, some tabulating scheme should be set up so as to provide quick feedback to the interviewees (within two weeks, if possible), highlighting some of the responses given by those who participated in interviews. It might be most useful to tabulate and release short summaries of responses intermittently over the period of an academic term, so as to maintain a relatively high level of interest on the part of new teachers in issues of pedagogy throughout the term.

4) *Program design.* Based upon the interview responses, seminars and other programs can be designed. Advertisements for such seminars and programs can be included in the same mailings as the tabulated interview responses, which would convey the message that the institution is indeed making an attempt to be responsive to the needs of its beginning teachers.

SOME NOTES ON THE MECHANICS OF THE INTERVIEWS

Length and number of interviews: It should be noted that interviews are *intensive.* They require concentration if they are

to be done well. While the schedule suggested in the appendix might successfully be completed in about twenty or thirty minutes, one person shouldn't be expected to do more than four or five on one day. As for how many interviews ought to be conducted in all, we found that considerable variance in responses was generated after ten or so interviews. As fodder for planning future teaching seminars, such a number would probably suffice. But by far the greatest value of the interview to the new teacher is realized in the process of conducting the interview itself. For this reason, only the size of the development staff should limit the number of interviews conducted.

Selection of interviewees: We selected interviewees in a very purposeful way, so that comparisons of GTAs could be made across different academic disciplines. This isn't necessary for developmental purposes, of course, but it may be important that development staffers request interviews of new teachers on a person-to-person basis. A system whereby teachers can volunteer to be interviewed might work, but some contingency plan for soliciting interviewees ought to be ready for implementation should the volunteer system fail.

Explaining the interview to the new teacher: We told GTAs we were interviewing them to find out whether the GTA development program was meeting their needs and how it might be improved. Additionally, we had academic interests in how GTAs conceptualized teaching and what they thought of their jobs as GTAs. These agendas were also made explicit in the course of the interview. Used in teacher development programs, it can be pointed out to new teachers that the interview is a way of getting to know them, of finding out who they are and what they would like to see in such a program. It can also be explained that polling teachers on their ideas about teaching enrichs the program and creates an interesting information base from which both teachers and development staff can learn.

In conclusion, we recognize that the interview is a "technique," and are mindful of the caveats Bob Tennenbaum (1984) stresses concerning our predilection for using techniques to distance ourselves from our "clients." The point we hope to make is that there can be techniques which draw people together rather than pushing them apart. The interview, if sensitively administered, seems to be such a technique.

SAMPLE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Thinking back to your first teaching experience in higher education (or adult education), what elements of that experience stand out in your mind?

2. Prior to teaching for the first time, did you have any experiences which helped prepare you for teaching?

3. Looking back, if you could have been given any type of preparation you wanted or needed for teaching, what would that preparation entail?

4. In general, when you reach the end of a class session, how do you determine whether that session has been successful or unsuccessful?

5. Can you give me an adjective or list of adjectives that would describe your particular "style" of teaching?

6. In your own experience, can you think of someone you would characterize as a good teacher? What was he or she like?

7. In your own experience, can you think of someone you would characterize as a poor teacher? What was he or she like?

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Academic Department Chair Training: The Why and The How of It

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Colleges and universities are confronting an unprecedented need for coordinated leadership at every level in the organization. The tensions in higher education that have been triggered by declining enrollments and general financial cut-backs can result in poor faculty morale which can impair teaching effectiveness and increase alienation and fragmentation within an institution. However, these same tensions can serve as a catalyst for creative innovation, program development, and cohesive team work. At such a period in the history of any academic institution, leadership must emerge, not only at the top, but at the departmental level.

The academic department chair occupies a key position as a leader in higher education. Strong leadership skills are required; yet, in most institutions, there is no formal training provided for the chair. As most new chairs attempt to cope with the demanding tasks of their jobs, they discover that the power derived from the position they hold is not enough to accomplish what needs to be done. Departmental goals can be achieved only by working effectively through others, and this requires the exercise of strong leadership skills. Most chairs then rely on whatever level of interpersonal skills they possess, recall the behavior of good and bad role models, and depend heavily on trial and error.

Since the development of leadership skills and a knowledge

of management science are too important to an organization to permit their occurrence in a haphazard fashion, colleges and universities must plan for systematic leadership development of academic chairs.

Little academic chair training has occurred in higher education.[1] In part, this is because chairs and faculty resist the idea that the department chair is a manager, believing that managers are part of industry, not academe. Yet academic chairs do manage and are responsible for the work of the people in their organizational units. Chairs do serve as a necessary conduit, representing faculty to the dean and sharing information about organizational goals to the faculty. The significant difference, however, is that the academic chair often has little of the formal power of a manager in industry. Motivating a difficult tenured faculty member is perceived by many chairs as close to impossible. The frequent lament is, "We have neither carrots nor sticks. How can we be effective leaders?"

Academic Chairs Are Not Trained For Their Leadership Role

Such comments reflect a lack of exposure to formal leadership training. Most academic chairs are not at all clear about what motivates faculty or what role they can play in that process. Unaware that a whole body of literature has already addressed these problems, they wrestle alone, feeling that to admit difficulty in solving such problems might reflect on their adequacy as department leaders. While chairs may sometimes complain to department members that they are constantly dealing with administrative minutiae, most chairs do enjoy the work and would make the same choice of becoming chair again. (Tucker, 1984). However, it is part of the academic culture that they must protest to others that they have taken the job because "someone has to do it."

A faculty member becomes an academic chair by being elected by members of the department, through appointment by the dean, through an established system of rotation, or some combination of these factors. The person is usually selected because he is respected, is felt to be knowledgeable about the discipline and the department, and is perceived to be fair in dealing with others.

When invited to become chair, a faculty member may accept for a number of reasons. Tucker (1984) includes in his list: personal satisfaction in helping others develop professionally, a chance to build effective academic programs, the challenge of leadership, defending the interests of the department, access to deans and vice-presidents, and status and prestige. Demonstrated ability in performing leadership functions is seldom a determining characteristic either for those who make the selection or for those who accept the invitation to become academic chairs.

Thus the dilemma is created. A faculty member is selected to become chair. He or she accepts the challenge. But the knowledge and skills that can make a leader effective must somehow be learned through trial and error. Most departments will permit a "honeymoon" period during which a chair may have an opportunity to solve problems and be innovative. However, by the beginning of the second semester, the chair's personal power will be reduced if he or she is judged to be ineffective in defending the department's causes or if perceived to be unfair, either in allocation of resources or in the role as final arbiter of faculty's teaching schedules. When this occurs, a department may accomplish little for the duration of the chair's term of office, remaining in a kind of holding pattern until the next chair takes office.

The purpose of the present paper is to discuss: (a) the kinds of training that a chair would find most useful in maximizing his effectiveness as leader of the department, and (b) the steps that a change agent can take in order to bring about effective leadership training for the academic chair.

NECESSARY INGREDIENTS FOR ACADEMIC CHAIR TRAINING

Effective leadership training for academic chairs must include two basic components: (a) learning some key elements in the body of literature that deals with leadership and management functions, and (b) an opportunity to identify and practice leadership skills. The two essential aspects of the subject of leadership are: interpersonal effectiveness and small group leadership. These topics include the fields of self-awareness, communication, feedback, leadership style, power and influence, motivation, performance counseling, conducting effective

meetings, problem solving and decision making, negotiation, conflict resolution, and team building.

The Director and a staff member[2] of the Office of Professional and Organizational Development (POD) at Fairleigh Dickinson University have developed and used a unique model in our Leadership Development Program for academic chairs (Lucas, 1986). This model provides intensive work with chairs in one college at a time for an entire semester. The format includes ten three-hour sessions which were divided into mini-lectures of 20 to 30 minutes, a discussion of handouts which had been distributed the week before, role play (behavior rehearsal) of scenarios of actual problems academic chairs were currently wrestling with, feedback from participants and observers of that role play, a discussion of what had been learned or back-home application of learnings, and an evaluation of the session. (See Appendix for a list of topics addressed in our program.)

Such a format permits learning of information and skills which are directly related to the problems that currently engage the attention of the academic chairs. The learning experience is validated for the participants because it is focused on issues that are of immediate concern to them.

The value of a lengthy (one semester), intensive model for learning is that it provides the necessary time for trust to be built in the facilitator(s) and in the group members. There is also the opportunity to confront the natural resistance and skepticism, and to continue with the group long enough so that they can experience the benefits of leaving a session with several alternative solutions to a problem with which they have been struggling. Even more importantly, they will have practiced the skills that are needed, e.g., in dealing with a difficult faculty member or resolving a conflict in the department.

The model used in our Leadership Development Program has created a peer support group that has enabled chairs to reach out to each other to discuss new problems as they occur. As part of the follow-up work, a number of chairs have also requested help from the POD Office with particular departmental problems. In two conflict-ridden departments, for example, we have worked closely with the individual chairs to do some team building, keeping chairs in those departments apprised constantly of what we are doing, asking for their advice and

feedback on what would and would not be likely to work given the culture of those departments.

SEQUENCE OF STEPS NECESSARY FOR EFFECTIVE ACADEMIC CHAIR TRAINING

In order to conduct leadership training in an institution where such programs have not previously been sponsored, some important steps must be undertaken:

1. An awareness of the need for leadership training must be developed. One approach that is almost certain to work is to invite an "expert" in from outside to speak to chairs and faculty members about leadership in the academic department. Then arrange for chairs in small groups to identify their own needs in leadership development. Summarize the results and provide this information to the conference participants.

2. You, as a change agent in your college or university, can then share your findings on the leadership needs chairs have identified with the appropriate academic officer, i.e., dean or VPAA. All training or change efforts have the greatest chance of being successful if there is support from top administration.

3. Conduct a needs analysis for one segment of your total system, i.e., a college if you are in a university. Interview and secure the support of the dean of that college. Find out what the dean perceives to be the strengths and the needs of the college. Then ask the dean to identify several chairs you can also interview. These chairs should represent a diversity of points of view so that a range of opinions can be tapped. Conduct what is called "sensing" interviews (Jones, 1973) with each of these individuals. Such an interview has as its goals: (a) generating useful data to form the basis for an organizational diagnosis, (b) gaining an in-depth understanding of data that have been obtained, and (c) developing ownership in the process of creating changes in the system.

4. Based on the data you have now collected, formulate some hypotheses about the leadership needs of the college. Develop a list of program objectives and submit it to the dean for additions, deletions, and approval. Let the dean know that you will be reporting back at each stage of the project so that there will be no surprises. At the same time, however, it is essential that confidentiality be observed at every step along

the way. Any information picked up in interviews should not be communicated to any other member of the college.

5. Have the dean announce the fact that a leadership program for chairs will take place. Let him or her handle all of the communication about the program. If the dean and chairs work reasonably well together, it would be useful to include the dean in the leadership development sessions. One value of this strategy is that an opportunity can be provided for chairs and dean to discuss mutual expectations of the role of the chair. Further, communication can be opened up between the two levels of chair and dean, so they can problem-solve together. It is extremely important to discuss ahead of time what role the dean will play in the leadership development program. What is most helpful is if the dean is supportive of the chairs and encourages them, through example, to be open and nondefensive.

6. Utilize all of the behaviors that are normally required of a good group facilitator, i.e., create a supportive climate in which chairs can feel free to experiment with new behaviors, build trust, provide positive feedback to participants, establish positive norms for the group, and accept all feedback from the group without being defensive.

7. Let the group know that you are available for individual consultation with any specific departmental problems and treat all of this with strict confidentiality.

8. Evaluate the program, both at the end of each session and also at the end of the entire program.

9. Provide for follow-up work with the group. Participants might plan a half-day session in which they can report progress on how they have tried to solve problems since the group ended. Other chairs can give feedback and recommend alternate strategies. The goal is to encourage chairs to become a support network for each other.

You as the change agent can also provide follow-up work with individual departments; e.g., engaging in process consultation for departmental or committee meetings; third party arbitration between a chair and a difficult faculty member; strategizing with a chair on handling some departmental problem; or assisting chairs in goal setting, bringing about change, and team building.

ADVANTAGES OF THE PROPOSED MODEL

The complaint one hears most frequently about management or leadership effectiveness programs is that the conference effects don't last. Participants feel euphoric at the end of the program and are convinced that they have learned a number of useful strategies for handling problems. However, when managers return to the office, they face the same uphill struggle in getting things done because the same difficult people and the same system problems continue to be present. Hopes are dashed, and leaders feel even more discouraged.

The value of this prolonged, intensive model is that once a level of trust that allows problems to surface has been established, the problems can continue to be worked on as the group meets over time. Also, because the change agent or group facilitator continues to be available on-site after the program has been completed, individual chairs have access to ongoing, confidential help with problems from someone whose competence they respect. Thus, unlike other approaches, this model strongly increases the probability of making a significant impact on the organization.

APPENDIX

Session Topics:

1. *The roles and responsibilities of a department chair.* The conflicting roles that the chair must assume in carrying out responsibilities to both administration, faculty, and students were explored. The knowledge and skills necessary to perform these functions were identified. Program objectives were presented so that chairs could add their own goals.

2. *Leadership and communication.* A brief review of leadership research, the task and relationship aspects of the role, and the way in which these functions apply in the department were covered. A discussion of the key elements in the communication process and an opportunity to role-play interactions between a chair and a faculty member were provided.

3. *Motivating faculty to assume greater responsibility in departmental functioning.* Creating a climate in which faculty can achieve their own professional goals by working towards organizational goals is the key to successful faculty motivation. Active listening with faculty and providing constructive feedback were practiced.

4. *Resolving conflict through problem solving.* The value of encouraging conflict in the department as a basis for developing a broad range of perspectives for problem solving was emphasized. A problem solving model was discussed, and the generation of implementation steps was role-played using situations developed by participants.

5. *Developing skills in performance counseling.* Handling performance counseling with faculty, with an emphasis on establishing goals and concrete action steps, was discussed. Several alternative approaches to an actual problem with a difficult faculty member were role-played, and feedback given to participants.

6. *The department chair as team leader.* The properties of effective task groups were identified. Through simulations of actual departmental problems, participants practiced and observed appropriate task and maintenance functions in groups.

7. *Decision making in the department.* The different methods of decision making were discussed, i.e., unilateral, delegation, consultation, and consensus, along with the anticipated effects of each approach. A task group meeting was simulated, and the effects of the decision making style adopted were analyzed.

8. *Bringing about change in the department.* The emergence of norms in our own work group and how they affect behavior were discussed. Departmental norms were identified. How negative norms in the department can be changed was demonstrated through a structured experience in which a chair confronted a negative norm, i.e., avoiding conflict by not verbalizing disagreement.

9. *Managing conflict in the department.* The varieties of ways in which conflict can be useful were discussed. A film clip on third-party intervention was shown. Role-plays of a chair dealing with a faculty member who does not make any contribution to the department, aside from teaching his class, demonstrated several approaches to handling conflicts with individual faculty.

10. *Goal setting, evaluation of training, and follow-up program.* Participants determined their needs as a group for further leadership development, setting up plans for follow-up work. Availability of POD staff for further individual work in departments was emphasized. The training program was evaluated both orally and in written form.

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NOTES

1. Notable exceptions are the American Council on Education Leadership Development Workshops, The University of Tennessee basic management training p ogram (Blom, 1985), Michigan State University programs on perf ormance evaluation, and Kansas State University conferences on Academic Chairpersons (Cashin, 1984-1985).
2. The author is pleased to acknowledge the work of Dr. Martin Birnbaum who collaborated fully in all phases of the FDU Leadership Development Program.

Learning to Teach in an American Classroom: Narrowing the Culture and Communication Gap for Foreign Teaching Assistants[1]

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Graduate teaching assistants are often assigned to teach small sections in which undergraduates are expected to participate and discuss the subject matter of a course. Foreign graduate students who have reached an advanced level in a specific discipline may be able to explain its intricacies with ease, particularly to others in the same field; however, when their teaching assignment calls for leading a discussion section, especially with students new to the subject, foreign teaching assistants[2] may encounter difficulty in speaking comprehensibly, in explaining clearly, and in understanding their students easily.

Crucial to their teaching success with American students, according to Bailey (1983), is an ability to promote interaction in the classroom. In their own academic careers they may not have been taught in a way that allowed for student participation. Asian and European graduate students alike speak about learning in large impersonal lectures. As a result they may not have had experience with the kinds of teaching that are common in an American classroom. They may lack familiarity with the rules of English conversation that govern discussion, and they may have no idea about small talk or topics for conversations with students. They may use non-verbal behavior that does not invite or support easy communication with undergraduates. They may encounter an additional barrier to

communication with some American students who believe they cannot understand their foreign teaching assistants. For all these reasons foreign teaching assistants can benefit from developing skills to communicate with their students.

In order to help foreign teaching assistants become more competent and confident teachers in the American classroom, Harvard University offers a program called "Teaching in English," organized by the Harvard-Danforth Center for Teaching and Learning. The goals of the program are to:

1. present and give opportunities to practice different ways of establishing and maintaining contact with students in and out of class;
2. present and give opportunities to practice some basic teaching strategies of particular use to non-native English speakers;
3. instill curiosity about cultural expectations of teachers and students so that they develop a perspective of looking at what people say and do in different situations (especially students and teachers in the classroom), asking what cultural values the behavior reflects, and remaining open to the possibility that the meaning of behavior may be different from what they observe or assume;
4. suggest that they establish and maintain good lines of communication with others who can help them understand more about the background and cultural context within which their students operate.

While a short course cannot perform miracles, it can provide ways to promote communication with students and interaction in class. Videotaped classes provide models of teacher-student interactions that are observed and discussed by program participants. Participants then videotape their own teaching and discussion-leading sessions in order to practice new skills, identify their own strengths and weaknesses, and observe subsequent improvement.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

Discussion about Teaching

In this program, participants first discuss their experiences as students and teachers in their home culture and in the

United States, their assumptions about what constitutes good teaching, and the value of communicating with students, both in and out of the classroom. Usually in comparing and contrasting their experiences of good teaching in their own cultures with their observations about the United States, foreign teaching assistants, with few exceptions, observe that there is greater opportunity in the United States for interaction between students and professors (and especially between students and teaching assistants) than there was in their own countries; and, that in the United States, there is a greater expectation of student participation in class.

Ironically, this kind of interaction, with which they have so little familiarity, is the key to overcoming some of the other barriers to communication between teaching assistants and their students. For example, in class, teaching assistants who invite questions are asked questions more frequently and are misunderstood less often. Teaching assistants who ask students to rephrase questions are more likely to understand what is really being asked. Teaching assistants who ask questions find out what the students are learning and where they need more help. And, perhaps most important, foreign teaching assistants can engender good will by demonstrating their willingness to reach out and by allowing students to see them as accessible individuals rather than mysterious, remote presences. For these reasons, much of the program focuses on enhancing these skills.

Observation of Teaching Skills

Focus 1: Encouraging Participation.

Through viewing and discussing selected examples of videotaped classes, foreign teaching assistants can observe a wide variety of teaching styles that are well-received by American students. As a focus for observing several short videotapes of classes in math, social science and humanities courses, the following questions are posed to the teaching assistants:

What does the teacher do to encourage student participation?

What purposes are served when students participate?

Looking at sequences of classroom interactions and specifying teacher behavior that generates and supports student

participation provide a concrete focus for discussions about teaching. That teachers in math or science may seek student participation for reasons different from those of a social science or humanities teacher often emerges in the course of the discussion.

In a calculus class, for example, the teacher is seen asking students how much they remember about checking equations to see if they are exact. As she writes out the equations, she invites the students to collaborate in working them out step by step. Another teacher, in a discussion of the Soviet economy, calls on students who speak infrequently whenever they show a willingness to talk, responds to student contributions differently in order to encourage more retiring students and to challenge more assertive ones, and makes frequent summaries, elaborating on students' points and attributing them to individuals by name. In a third class, a literature teacher initiates an animated discussion of the "Rime of the Ancient Mariner" by hearing from nearly every student in response to his opening question: "Do you retain any vivid images from this poem?" This open, concrete question is readily answered by many students who provide specific examples. The teacher moves the discussion forward by listening closely and respectfully to the students' comments and relating students' comments to one another. Students are encouraged to explore new ideas by the teacher's willingness to pursue directions introduced by students.

In the discussions of these videotapes, the foreign teaching assistants' comments about the rationale for encouraging student participation and discussion are supplemented by what we, the teaching consultants, know about the videotaped teachers' reasons for asking particular questions and responding to different students as they do. Math and science teachers, for example, know that it is easy to talk over students' heads, and that it can be difficult for students to articulate what they do not understand. By asking for specific answers, in a non-threatening way, the teachers keep better track of how students are grasping the material, and because they anticipate being asked, students are apt to follow the class more closely.

Teachers of discussion sections that follow lectures, such as the government class and the poetry class observed on tape, view class meetings as an opportunity for students to demonstrate

their command of the lecture material and to explore the associated readings. At the beginning of the year, the government teacher establishes a clear expectation that students will talk without his having to call on them. Understanding that it is their class, not his, they come to class prepared to make contributions. The literature teacher views each class as an opportunity for students to develop their own ideas by talking with each other. He knows that there are many different ways to read a text and that individuals have different personal responses. Creating a safe atmosphere for students to express themselves, he encourages individuals to develop and support their own interpretations.

This background information both informs the teaching assistants about ways successful teachers think about their teaching and adds to their understanding of teaching in an American context. Implied in these discussions are the notions of flexibility and individuality: that different teaching strategies are effective in different circumstances; and, most especially, that individual teachers develop unique teaching styles reflecting their own personalities, values, and enthusiasms.

Focus 2: Basic Teaching Strategies to Assist Non-native Speakers.

Not only are foreign teaching assistants well served by an awareness of the rationale and strategies for establishing and maintaining contact with students, but, like other teaching assistants, they can benefit from learning skills basic to lecturing and discussion-leading, especially devices of particular use to non-native speakers of English.

Presenting material clearly. Teaching assistants are alerted to techniques that native speakers of English use when they teach, techniques that they themselves might use were they teaching in their own languages. For example, foreign teaching assistants usually express themselves very parsimoniously in English, while native speakers of English might restate ideas in slightly different ways in successive sentences instead of trusting in one simple sentence to do the job. Therefore clarity can be enhanced if the teaching assistants develop the habit of restating and rephrasing concepts as they teach in English.

It has been our experience that many foreign teaching assistants worry particularly about their pronunciation. While

pronunciation is what undergraduates complain about most often (Hinofotis and Bailey, 1980), there is evidence that other phenomena might be mistaken for a general pronunciation problem (Zukowski/Faust, 1984). For example, foreign teaching assistants, as well as many inexperienced teachers, tend to express themselves casually in the code of their disciplines. Many foreign teaching assistants are accustomed to using English terms when discussing their field in their own language. When they use those same terms while speaking English, they sometimes retain their non-English intonation and pronunciation. In doing so, they may further obscure the meaning of abbreviations, formulas and jargon. Teaching assistants need to be alerted to this and to practice paraphrasing into ordinary English the abbreviated statements which they may be tempted to gloss over.

Some other elements basic to clear explanations are of particular importance to people who tend to have difficulty making themselves understood: framing presentations, using devices to organize speech (Brown, 1978), and setting up expectations for listeners by telling them what is about to be said all help set the stage for clearer communication because they cue the listener about what is to follow. Foreign teaching assistants learn to announce the elements of the talk they are giving, to provide explicit transitions and to cite examples and suggest comparisons and contrasts. These devices make it much easier for the students to follow even if the actual delivery is handicapped by pronunciation, intonation, or vocabulary problems.

Discussion Leading Devices. The notion of framing what one is about to say, and even using cues to indicate that one is at a loss of words, is of great use to foreign teaching fellows as they lead and participate in discussions. In a foreign language it is easy to appear abrupt or puzzlingly silent because one does not use linguistic devices that signal intentions. Native speakers use many cues to provide a context for interpreting their behavior, such as "I'd like to add to a point that was made earlier" or "let me think about that for a minute;" non-native speakers are often unaware of those cues.

In the training program, teaching assistants are asked to practice phrases as they lead and participate in discussions. They learn to correct more gently by using responses such as

"yes, but. . ." or "I think you are right about . . . but what about . . .?" They can keep a discussion on track by interrupting a speaker with "Let's just focus on the first point you raised" or "Could we hold that question for a minute, and get back to the issue of . . ." Other situations that can be handled more gracefully with similar devices include: opening and closing a discussion, leaving a topic, handling silence, re-phrasing a question that gets no response, asking for clarification, reformulating others' statements to test comprehension, asking for examples, balancing participation in the discussion by drawing out reticent people, and many more.

Focus 3: Teacher and Student Expectations of Each Other

Discussing cultural and personal differences in teachers' expectations of students can be very illuminating to foreign teaching assistants and to the teaching consultants as well. For example, the level of preparation of many American high school students in math is surprisingly inadequate, according to teaching assistants from different educational systems. Some are surprised that a teacher can successfully organize a class around the expectation that students will do some homework during the semester, as opposed to waiting for an exam of the end of one year (or even three years) as is the case in their own systems; that weekly quizzes are not the custom in all American universities is a surprise to others. That students evaluate teachers can come as a shock. Several foreign teaching assistants notice that American teachers emphasize the development of students' personal opinions, in papers as well as in class; in their own learning they may have had more experience in citing authorities than in asserting and supporting their own views. While some foreign teaching assistants observe that American students have narrow academic interests, others are surprised at their breadth of preparation. Many appreciate the informal relationship between teacher and student, for example, easy conversations outside of class, while others are offended by displays of what they view as student disrespect, such as chewing gum or drinking sodas in class.

After viewing several classes, foreign teaching assistants sense how teachers may also take into account the expectations students have of them. For example, American students want to

be positively regarded and recognized as individuals. They expect a less formal authority relationship with (and more access to) their teacher. They expect to learn inductively, with more problems to solve and greater participation in class. Above all, they expect teachers to help them succeed in their learning.

Familiarity with these expectations can ease communication between teacher and student, not only improving classroom interactions, but also contributing to their overall effectiveness. In the classes viewed on tape, successful teachers demonstrate some of the following qualities and skills that some foreign teachers say they benefit from observing, such as: encouraging students in their learning, taking into account different levels of academic preparation by giving different feedback to different kinds of student responses, showing politeness and even gentleness in correcting student errors, showing that students are known as individuals by, for example, making references to their particular interests and using names in class, being accessible in conversations before and after class in their offices, explaining assignments clearly and responding carefully to student work.

Problems can arise when expectations are not met or when there are discrepancies between student and teacher expectations. The source of problems becomes harder to detect when expectations seem similar in the two cultures, but are demonstrated differently, for example, when the meaning of actions based on one set of cultural values is interpreted by people from another culture assigning meaning according to their own cultural framework. Viewing videotapes of other teachers' lectures and discussions serves as a vehicle not only for learning pedagogical techniques, but also for becoming acquainted with a cross-cultural point of view, by observing behavior, raising questions about what has been observed, and reflecting on how interpretations of meaning can differ.

The importance of non-verbal aspects of behavior, for example, should not be underestimated by someone trying to function in another culture. Non-verbal aspects of teacher (and student) behavior that may be peculiar to American culture are evident on the videotapes. While it is often not possible to identify exactly what it is about the tone of voice, posture or facial expression that conveys meaning, nor is it

necessarily desirable to copy the details of another culture, it is possible to increase foreign teaching fellows' awareness of the meaning of different behavior in different cultural contexts. For example, among Americans, it is customary for listeners to look relatively steadily in the eyes of the speaker. When a listener looks away, it can convey inattention, disrespect, or in a discussion, reluctance to speak. In some other cultures, looking down can signify respect, while moving around in one's seat—as Americans tend to do—can seem very disrespectful. Rules vary among cultures as to how people act with one another if they know each other only superficially; how people enter and leave rooms; where people stand or sit; how close to one another they stand and sit; and how and when people touch one another. By raising questions about the meaning that particular behavior might convey and what that might imply in the context of the American classroom, foreign teaching assistants begin to develop a framework for observation and understanding.

Videotaped Practice Teaching

After observing several models of American classroom interactions, foreign teaching assistants are given the opportunity to observe themselves as they practice their teaching skills. The sequence of teaching skills in the practice sessions is incremental, from the least to the most interactive. The first activity is taping (and then viewing) a short presentation of a concept or a process in the teaching assistant's own field, accompanied by a handout or other visual support for communication. The second activity is a re-taping of the presentation, in which participants explicitly interact with the audience, taking into account what they have learned about giving clear presentations. The third activity is a videotaped discussion in which each participant has an opportunity to practice discussion-leading skills.

Reviewing the First Practice Presentations

Some questions that guide participants as they begin reviewing their teaching include: How do you motivate the listeners so that they will attend to your presentation? How do you vary the pace of your delivery? What are your key

points? How do you provide emphasis? What do you want to convey enthusiasm about? How do you want to present yourself?

In response to these questions people may comment about the structure and content of their presentations, how the use of the blackboard or handout affected their delivery, and how eye movements, body position, and voice affect communication. Fellow participants, who subsequently join in the discussion, are urged to point out strengths. They are further cautioned that people will be more likely to work on improving what they feel is important, and that they can concentrate on only a few things at a time.

The Second Practice Presentation

Repeating presentations, and viewing subsequent improved versions, builds confidence as individuals see their own improvement in aspects of teaching that they view as important. Ultimately, as the teaching assistants feel and look confident and competent as teachers, their students' understanding and willingness to communicate with them will increase. For the second videotaped presentaion, the explicit assignment is for the teaching assistants to draw in the audience by asking about their experience with the topic or engaging them in a demonstration or solution to a problem. The goal is to incorporate into a presentation as much contact and communication with an audience as possible so that teaching this way becomes more natural.

Practice Discussion-leading

Having the opportunity to actually lead a brief discussion and then view themselves is the culminating activity of this sequence. We have experimented with different ways to organize discussions in order to give all the foreign teaching assistants a chance to lead, to allow the discussion to flow, and to keep within reasonable time boundaries (stopping the tape and discussing observations takes considerably longer than the actual taping). One format that works well is for individuals to choose a topic related to one of the two themes of the program, subjects in which everyone has done some reading in the course and has something to offer: teaching and culture.

All the participants are responsible for leading ten minutes of discussion. At this point they have an opportunity to practice all the interactive skills they have observed in the model videotapes. In reviewing the videotape of the discussion, participants consider the responsibilities of a discussion leader and the mechanics of discussion-leading. They observe how different types of questions facilitate discussion and how successfully they, as leaders and participants in the discussion, integrate the many skills they have been practicing throughout the program.

Focus 4: Communication with Colleagues and American Friends

Our last general piece of advice is to suggest ways for foreign teaching assistants to establish relationships with Americans. Isolation is a serious risk for graduate students, particularly foreign graduate students. In order to better understand their students, and in order to better interpret what they observe about American culture as manifested by their students—as well as maintaining a sense of humor about observations and experiences—we encourage them to make a conscious effort to establish and maintain links with other Americans, especially among teaching assistants in their departments who can help solve the mysteries related to teaching American students.

IN SUMMARY

The Harvard-Danforth program provides the participants with an opportunity to develop the understanding and skills they will need to function effectively in an American classroom. This is done through a sequence of discussion, observation of model teaching episodes and videotaped practice teaching. All of these experiences allow the foreign teaching assistant to examine assumptions about good teaching, observe a number of teaching styles and strategies, practice teaching the subject matter and gain experience and confidence in interacting with students in English, which will serve them well as they face their own classes.

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NOTES

1. Part of this article previously appeared under another title. "Training Foreign Teaching Assistants: Using Videotape to Observe and Practice Communicating and Interacting with Students." (1985). In P. Larson, E. Judd & D. Messerschmitt (Eds.), *On TESOL '84*. Washington, D.C. Copyright by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.
2. While some foreign teaching assistants are native English speakers and many non-native English speaking faculty may have problems similar to those of teaching assistants, for the sake of simplicity the participants in this program are referred to as "foreign teaching assistants."

Genetics in Jeopardy: The Diagnosis and Treatment of Chronic Disease in an Undergraduate Medical Course–A Case Report

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Presenting Symptoms

The course in medical genetics at our University consists of thirty lectures and four laboratory sessions given to two hundred and fifty medical students at the beginning of their second year in which they begin their clinical studies and can purge, with a sigh of relief, the large dose of basic science administered to them in their first year.

This course had been in trouble for a long time. Among all courses in the second year curriculum, it had, for many years, consistently received the lowest rating from the students. Representations by the medical students to our medical education division on any subject whatsoever would more often than not end in the request: "Oh, and by the way, can't you do something about Medical Genetics?" The coordinator of the course, an internationally respected authority in the field, discouraged by the uncomplimentary ratings, finally threw in the towel and requested that somebody else run the course.

The new coordinator (RJMG), on being appointed, consulted a member of the Division of Studies in Medical Education (RGT) to determine what treatment his specialty had to offer. It was decided that the first step was to take a history and interview all the people who were involved in the course. These discussions brought to light the following attitudes and opinions:

Case History

The medical students confirmed the long standing reputation of the course. They saw it as largely irrelevant to the practice of medicine. The only clear idea they expressed about the goals of the course was that it seemed to provide a mechanism for rewarding outstanding researchers with an opportunity for a self indulgent exposition of their area of expertise. The students' perception of the lectures as solo virtuoso performances, unrelated to any central theme, was confirmed, in their mind, by the fact that a lecturer would sometimes deal with a topic which, unknown to him, had previously been addressed by another lecturer. Finally they perceived the examinations as devious attempts to catch them out, requiring them to understand or recall detail which had not been included or, at best, adumbrated in the lectures. They perceived the lecturers as arrogant and unsolicitous.

The demonstrators in the course also provided a rich variety of insights. There were twelve of these, all of whom were doctoral students carrying on fundamental research in molecular genetics and cell biology. In a frank and lively meeting at which they and the authors were all present, they expressed the view that the medical profession purveys a relatively modest body of superficial knowledge at inflated prices. In the medical students, they discerned this defect in embryo. As they saw it, the material which the medical students were required to master was almost childishly elementary, and, in spite of this, the medical students were continually pressing to have the material presented in an easier and more assimilable form requiring minimum digestion before regurgitation at the exam. The graduate students were interested in knowledge for its own sake and were uncomfortable with those who were not. On the other hand, they revealed that they did not feel at home with clinical concepts, and one demonstrator confessed that he had avoided a difficult clinical question, which he did not have the experience to answer, by emitting a smokescreen of complex numerical calculations. The demonstrators (who were, themselves, unclear about the goals of the course) had developed a cynical defensiveness in response to the consistently inhospitable attitude of the students.

The faculty lecturers, in most cases, did not realize how unhappy the medical students were with the course. Their

contact with the students was brief and desultory, typically confined to the delivery of a few lectures to a class of two hundred and fifty students. On being told that the students were unhappy, they took the view that not much could be done about it since the cause of their unhappiness with the course seemed to be its content which had been distilled over the years into an ineluctible residue of essential knowledge.

The previous coordinator took a traditional view. She felt that the medical students were indulged to an absurd extent and that they should simply concentrate on learning what they were expected to learn since they did not have the experience to make reliable judgments about what was and was not relevant. She did not feel that the intervention of a medical educator, innocent of genetics, would prove useful or relevant.

The new coordinator took a rather different view based, in part, on inquiries he had made at other medical schools which had revealed two interesting facts. First, the content of Medical Genetics courses in other universities was remarkably similar to the content of our course. Second, all the courses in Medical Genetics given by other universities seemed to be received with a lack of hospitality similar to that displayed by our own students. Having reflected on this information and on the experience he had had teaching medical genetics in this and another university, he came to the conclusion that the teaching of medical genetics was beset by problems inherent in the discipline itself. However, having consulted an educational "therapist," he was willing to listen to the clinical advice offered.

Diagnosis

These discussions had revealed to the medical educator a very clear picture of the pathology of the course. There was no clear policy about what the course was intended to achieve. While the general goal was obviously to teach the students medical genetics, the meaning and relevance of this discipline to the students had not been worked out in sufficient detail. There was no clear plan, and what plan there was had not been clearly communicated either to the teachers, the demonstrators or the students. In fact, the various participants in the course had quite different ideas about its goals. As a result of all these circumstances, the students had no confidence that the course was of any value.

Plan of Treatment

Clear goals were formulated. It was decided that the goal of the course would be to teach "What the Primary Care Physician Needs to Know about Genetics." This was broken down into subsidiary themes "The Mechanisms of Genetic Disease" and "The Management of Genetic Disease." It was to be explained that the mechanism of disease is crucial to devising rational treatment. (This is not entirely true since there are some diseases which we understand completely and are unable to treat and others of which we are completely ignorant for which we can offer some help. However to the extent that the concept is true, it is of heuristic value.)

The management was broken down again into assessment of risk ("Will it happen again, doctor?"), treatment, and counseling. Each lecture in the course was related to one of its central themes. For example, in teaching mechanisms of heredity, it was explained that this knowledge was necessary in order to instruct the parents what they mgiht expect for future children. The management was further classified into that which could be undertaken by the primary physician and that which should be delegated to specialists. It was explained, however, that the primary care physician must have an understanding of those problems normally handled by specialists so that he could both understand and assess what the specialist was telling him about and doing for the patient.

The goals were explained. They were explained to the students in an introductory lecture much as summarised above. In addition, throughout the course, whenever a new lecturer appeared on the scene, the coordinator introduced him and, after issuing suitable testimonials to the lecturer's expertise and prominence in the field about to be expounded, he reminded the students how it would fit into the plan of the course.

The goals were explained to the lecturers. At a meeting, the lecturers were reminded what the plan of the course was. In fact, they had all been consulted during its formulation. They were then reminded about the purpose of their particular lecture within the general plan. It was pointed out which of the lectures prior to their own would develop material on which the content of their own lectures would depend and which subsequent lectures would, in turn, build on their own material.

It was suggested to them that they make reference to those lectures. While at least some of the lecturers regarded all this as a trivial and nugatory exercise, they genially agreed to go along with it, probably to humour the coordinator.

The goals were explained to the demonstrators. The insights which they had acquired in the course of our preliminary discussions were reinforced. They were reminded that scholars and scientists have an attitude toward the acquisition of knowledge very different from that entertained by people who are acquiring knowledge so that they can apply it. It was pointed out that these differences are rational and legitimate. The student who aspired to become a physician would find few clinical problems whose treatment required the mastery of genetic material. Moreover, although the mastery of genetic mechanisms can provide students with a powerful theoretical framework into which can be fitted the mechanisms of many diseases, this perspective is not immediately obvious to the medical student. It was explained to the demonstrators that whereas the course was extremely easy when measured in their own terms as scientists, the students had other kinds of difficulty to face: the acquisition of a large amount of new material and the struggle to synthesise it and assess its relevance to their ultimate goal of practising medicine. They were reminded of their own difficulties in grappling with clinical problems.

The graduate teaching assistants agreed to:

1. adopt an attitude of helpfulness, understanding and support toward the medical students;
2. take seriously and attempt to answer the students' questions and, if unable to do so, seek help from a clinical instructor;
3. welcome the students' criticisms of the course and bring them to the attention of the coordinator.

Under New Management. The medical educator advocated some marketing of the new product prior to its delivery so that the students' acceptance of it would not be prejudiced by expectations based on what they had heard about the old product. It was widely advertised that the course was under new management and that the goals and organization of the course had been radically revised. A high profile was given to the new coordinator who was warned by the medical educator that, by virtue of this manufactured celebrity, he would be

held to account if the course, when delivered, did not meet the specifications promised in the advertisements.

Initial Response to Treatment

The mood of the class appeared to be dramatically better than in previous years. At first, whenever the medical educator discussed the course with students, either individually or in small groups, they unanimously expressed their surprise that the course was so much better than they had expected from its reputation. Moreover, the new coordinator was delighted with the absence of the "legalistic" attitude of the students which had so discouraged the previous coordinator. He had not been bombarded by persistent attempts to discover the nature of the exam questions and the precise page numbers of text for which students were to be held responsible. No systematic effort was made at this point to measure student attitudes, but the positive attitude toward the course was obvious to the medical educator who was in frequent contact with both the students and the teaching assistants.

Of course, the positive climate might have resulted from characteristics inherent in the class rather than from our efforts. However, a dramatic event convinced us that this was not the case.

Relapse

Half way through the course, a crisis occurred. It was precipitated by a mid-term test. Our policy about tests, which had been clearly stated, was that success in them would depend on the mastery of broad and relevant principles and not on the memorization of trivial detail. The question which precipitated the crisis, although conceived with the promised purpose of revealing a principle, had been inadvertently designed in such a manner, that its solution did, in fact, require knowledge of a particularity which the students thought trivial. The students perceived this as a breach of promise, which recalled to their minds many similar incidents throughout high school and university, when tests had failed to reflect the espoused objectives of the course. They panicked.

Their reflexes jerked them into their old exam oriented strategy. Rather than attempting a conceptual mastery of the

material, they sought, by skillful interrogation of the course coordinator, to divine the contents of the final exam. They pestered him to specify exactly what, or failing that which page, in the readings they were responsible for.

Under this assault, signs of deterioration began to be observed in the coordinator. In his view the course plan was reasonable and humane. The issue had been simply a slip made by one of the section teachers who had not fully realized the implications of her question. He had told the students that the final exam would require an understanding of the ideas and concepts in the readings. Why did they not believe him? The course coordinator, beginning with the best intentions, was beginning to share the view previously held by the teaching assistants—that the students were pragmatic, exam-oriented and without real interest in the mastery of the material. He resisted their entreaties for specific information about the exam, and this, in turn, increased the students' suspicion about his real intentions.

The reason for the students' reaction was quite simply that the students had nothing in their past to warrant the trust that the coordinator expected of them. They had been burned before. They had learned that the educational goals of the instructors were reflected much more accurately in exams than in the instructor's abstract statements of intent. They believed the lab exam and not the espoused aims of the course. Morale plummeted. The honeymoon was over. Some cynics were quick to point out that the climate is always good until the students have to pay the piper. No one likes exams. The medical educator did not accept this cynical view. He recognized these events as the downward spiral of mistrust. The general feeling among the students, gleaned from hallway conversations, was that the course was not really a new deal, but just a sugar-coated version of the old pill. The genuine attempt to give the students a new deal had been threatened by a single slip.

Emergency Treatment

Something had to be done quickly. Each of the two factions had to understand that the other was sincere. The medical educator invited several students, a teaching assistant and the course coordinator to an extended luncheon. Over a bottle

of respectable Chablis, they talked. The students believed the coordinator's explanation of the error in the exam question but were skeptical about his ability to convince two hundred fifty other students unless he took them all to lunch, three at a time. The coordinator came to appreciate how exquisitely finely tuned the students' study habits were and how difficult it would be to convince the students to take the risk of abandoning them.

The strategy finally agreed on was that he should neither back down from his conception of a course directed to the solution of problems and the understanding of ideas nor give in to demands for a detailed menu of facts to be learned. Spoonfeeding would only have reinforced a bad habit.

On the other hand, it was clear that trust had to be rebuilt. We agreed on a rather formal explanation- an apology—which would be delivered at the beginning of the lecture on the following morning by the course coordinator himself. The explanation would be followed by a handout containing sample questions of the sort that would and would not be used. Finally, it was agreed that the exam itself would have to be carefully designed to reflect accurately the intent of the course.

The apology was a smashing success. The coordinator received a standing ovation. The change in climate among the students was palpable. The apology was salient in the minds of all the students we spoke to. The expectation about the exam was tinged with cautious skepticism, but the general mood of the class was cheerful and positive. Moreover, this was not a transitory change. The following year, a student told the medical educator, in the course of casual conversation, that one of his friends had experienced an historic event last year. For the first time in the history of the medical school, a teacher made an apology to the class for a mistake in the programme!

Final Assessment

After the end of the course three groups of six students were drawn randomly from the class and asked to comment on the course. The opinions expressed in these group discussions are summarized below:

1. *The Exam.* "The test was fair;" "Not too much picky detail;" "It required a grasp of the subject matter rather

than memorization;" "Of all the medical courses I have taken in medical school, this was the most sane."

2. *The Attitude Toward the Teaching Assistants.* "Their attitudes were O.K.;" "Their attitudes were excellent."
3. *The Lecturers.* Attitudes toward the lecturers ranged from "so-so" to "excellent;" "We felt that the teachers were concerned with us and with our welfare."

The students were not without some criticisms of the course. They complained about having had to buy a new textbook while the old one had looked good enough, not having been given more experience in identifying syndromes, not having a course syllabus, unevenness in the grading of lab exams and the wet-blanket personality of certain teaching assistants. A few students commented that the concept of subsuming the course under major themes could, with advantage, have been taken further and that certain lecturers were not paying attention to the themes that did exist.

However, conspicuously absent from their complaints were expressions of suspicion, lack of trust, or bad feeling about the course. Whenever the interviewer attempted to elicit attitudes of this kind, he failed to find them. The value of the evidence provided by the students was limited by the fact that having experienced the course only for one year, they were unable to make direct comparisons with previous years. But most of the demonstrators had taught the year before, and their comments corroborated what we had inferred from the students' comments.

Typical Comments from Teaching Assistants: "I felt better this year [teaching] because students seemed to be enjoying it more;" "There was very little attacking of the course by the students."

They showed much more insight into the students' problems, recognizing how difficult it had been for them to make the important change in their style of study in response to the new requirements of the course. However, like the students, the teaching assistants also had criticisms, for example, the lack of a syllabus and the inconsistent standards of marking among themselves.

Four of the five lecturers who had taught in both years were also interviewed. Their comments confirmed our assumption that the main contact with the students was through

the teaching assistants. Most of them did not notice any difference in the students nor in their teaching. However, most lecturers, who had taught in the course before, received much higher ratings than they had previously enjoyed.

CONCLUSIONS

The attitudes expressed by the behaviour observed in both the students and the demonstrators left no doubt in our minds that the reforms which were instituted had caused dramatic improvement in the social climate. In one year, a course which had certainly been the most unpopular had become one of the most popular. The question is—why did this happen? In formal terms, very little had changed in the organization and content of the course. Roughly the same things had been taught, largely by the same people and in substantially the same order. We had done little more than put old wine into new bottles. It seems that the social atmosphere and repute of this course had been radically changed by reforms which, on the surface, appeared trivial, an impression confirmed by the dramatic impact of the coordinator's trivial confession.

The answer, we believe, is that the changes we instituted restored trust in a body of students whose inherent inclination is to be mistrustful of the system in which they are being educated. For the most part, medical students learn basic science not because they are interested in it but simply because they have been told they must learn it to achieve their real goal which is, of course, to become doctors. They believe, and they are in part correct, that the subjects which they are required to learn and the methods whereby their knowledge of these subjects will be tested, are almost arbitrarily chosen. This forces them into adversarial strategies to beat a system which does not make much sense to them. The extra effort made in our experiment to explain the relevance of the ideas being presented to them and to offer sensible methods of assimilating them went a long way, though not the whole way, towards removing this fear and distrust.

Of course, we have no means of knowing whether as a result of this they learned any more. But, there is evidence in the literature to suggest that they may have. It has been shown that an encouraging environment releases energy that students otherwise use to cope with an adversarial system, and that the

energy thus released is redirected into the task of learning. They listen better with fewer distortions and distractions. They have a greater appreciation of class content. They attend class more frequently, and they learn more.

Whether or not our students learned more genetics than their predecessors, they almost certainly left medical school with a kindlier disposition towards this subject which, in the long run, may have helped them better retain what they learned.

Teaching the Introductory-Level Course: A Special Challenge

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One of the most challenging teaching tasks in the university is providing effective instruction in introductory-level courses. Members of the Study Group sponsored by the National Institute of Education recognized this challenge when they recommended that "deans and department chairs . . . assign as many of their finest instructors as possible to classes attracting large numbers of first-year students" (1984). If teaching the introductory course is a special case, what makes it so and how can college teachers vary their teaching methods to meet this challenge? This article describes some of the special qualities associated with teaching introductory-level courses and suggests some instructional strategies which can be used in addressing the special needs of beginning students in a discipline.

Teachers at all levels go through some process of course planning or instructional design. It has been estimated that teachers make 1300 decisions a day having to do with the subject, the students, and the instruction in their courses (Costa and Garmston, 1985). In planning and making decisions, college teachers need to take into account such elements as student characteristics, specific topics in the subject matter, levels of thinking required of students, constraints and opportunities provided by the physical surroundings and equipment, as well as their own teaching philosophies, styles, and skills.

This paper discusses three areas which are important to consider in designing instruction for the introductory course. They are: (1) the nature of the subject matter, (2) the characteristics of beginning students, and (3) the environment of the academic community.

SUBJECT MATTER IN INTRODUCTORY COURSES

One major difference between introductory-level courses and others in the discipline is found in the subject matter itself. Specifically what information is included in what depth or breadth as well as other selected skills, attitudes or values may differ appreciably.

1. Subject Matter Selection. Content in an introductory-level course may serve a variety of purposes within the curriculum. These purposes establish the nature and depth of subject matter selected by the professor. For example, one course may be used to attract future majors while others may serve to develop prerequisite knowledge, skills or attitudes for future courses in the field. Still other introductory courses represent components of a general liberal education which emphasize general awarenesses, appreciations and societal relevance. Since every course, of necessity, is a sampling of content from a field, the purpose within the curriculum points the way to limiting what that selection should be.

2. Breadth versus Depth. Each professor has great autonomy in determining not only what topics to include, but the degree of breadth or depth of each of these. If a foundation of a broad array of facts, principles, concepts and vocabulary is important, then little depth may be required. On the other hand, if one wishes to convey "ways of knowing" in the field, a single inquiry in great detail and depth may be a better choice. Professional decisions must be made about the relative merits of such choices.

3. Levels of Thinking. An introductory treatment of any subject matter typically requires little beyond memorization, recall and simple comprehension on the part of students. While concepts or principles being memorized may be complicated in themselves, learners need to use little reasoning ability. A course with the purpose of developing reasoning skills must incorporate activities which also require the student to apply

the memorized ideas to new situations, to analyze issues or problems in the field, to synthesize new plans or explanations or to use standards to judge the qualitative aspects of an illustration. Writing assignments or problem solving tasks can be used as devices for requiring students to exercise these more complex thinking processes.

4. Attitudes and Values. While the development of attitudes, values and appreciations are especially important in the general education course, every field has equally useful affective responses. These might include attention to detail and careful observation in the sciences, a sensitivity to original expression in humanities, or a valuing of diversity among people in the social sciences. Introductory courses may provide the only opportunity for a teacher to engender positive relevant attitudes for a given subject. When the occasion arises, the professor can model these responses as well as draw upon illustrations which demonstrate expressions of attitudes or values. Simulations, role playing and interviewing activities can contribute to the development of affective learning. One of the consistently powerful ways to develop student attitudes is the expression of enthusiasm by the professor about new ideas and insights.

5. Assessment of Student Performance. The determination of how well students perform is directly related to decisions regarding the purpose of the course, its role in the curriculum and the kinds of thinking a student should be able to demonstrate. At issue is not whether essay tests or multiple-choice tests are utilized; but rather what is the best way to determine whether a student can demonstrate the kinds of thinking about the subject which were targeted. Maybe an essay is useful for tracking the student's line of analytical thought, but perhaps a short-answer or multiple choice can better sample comprehension of a large variety of ideas, principles, concepts and applications.

Since introductory students do represent wide variations in capability and sophistication, use of preassessments are particularly useful. These allow adjustments which can better utilize time for those topics not already understood, or for greater depth of study. Preassessments allow the most efficient plan while postassessments confirm how well students do after instruction and whether they have mastered prerequisites for

continuation. Both together allow assessment of how much the instruction has contributed to student growth.

BEGINNING STUDENTS

A major concern for teachers must be for the great heterogeneity among students in their introductory courses. Some of the differences include:

*1. **Background and Experiences.*** Students may or may not have had high school courses in the subject matter. Other elements such as previous reading, travel, work, age, demographic variation, parental attitudes, and values will affect the degree to which students are responsive in class. Teachers need to capitalize on the experiences of some without forming unfair biases against others.

One of the difficult tasks of the professor is to see the *subject matter* from the *perspective* of the entering student. It is necessary for a teacher to have a substantial margin of knowledge beyond that of the student. This fact, however, may make it difficult to see why students may have difficulty. Some phrases helpful to point out the direction students are to move include: "The first issue is . . .", or "Let's review for a moment . . ."

Learning also takes place when new ideas or concepts are *related to prior experience* and knowledge. Material can be clearly connected to what the students see as personally or socially relevant.

Beginning students are often reluctant to participate in an overt way. Therefore providing an encouraging atmosphere, *free of negative criticism or sarcasm*, is essential in allowing them to examine and debate concepts. The teacher's own *enthusiasm* goes a long way in establishing an atmosphere where students will participate. Passive behavior requires that the teacher be *alert to feedback cues*—facial expression, eye contact, comments—which indicate the degree students are following or are involved in the learning process.

*2. **Capacity.*** Learning aptitude represents a basic variable in academic success. Any class represents a considerable range of capability among students. Every student, however, can be moved toward more learning. The challenge is to stimulate the most capable as well as not exceeding frustration levels

for the less able student.

Although *repeating materials* sounds boring, one time through materials is not enough. The teacher needs to give the students at least three opportunities to learn each concept, at least once in the class period and at other times by readings, exercises or reiteration.

3. Stages of Intellectual Development. Entering students, especially those of traditional college age, display a much greater variety in stages of intellectual development which causes them to respond in a variety of ways. They may be oriented to a demand for "black or white" truths; they may see all ideas "as good as all others;" or they may see "all things as relative to all other things and nothing is certain" (Perry, 1981). Ways students perceive the world result in differences in how they view learning the subject and will be reflected in their responses to all aspects of the course. If the professor can accept the students' levels of development and nudge them toward recognition of the relativity of knowledge, progress can be made. This variable can sometimes account for what appear to the teacher to be unreasonable demands as well as inconsistencies in course evaluations.

4. Learning Styles. Every introductory class represents a great variety of ways individuals incorporate new information into their own thinking. This variable accounts for the fact that some students prefer lecture while others prefer discussion; some learn better visually while others need aural input; some need first-hand experiences while others prefer to read about the behavior; some need to work alone while others need interaction with peers; some learn better inductively while others do better deductively; some automatically organize and structure everything while others need to have an organization suggested. The list could go on; however, this diversity suggests that teaching using a variety of approaches is most likely to be successful when coping with such a variety of learners. This diversity may diminish as one works only with those self-selected by major field of study in upper level courses.

5. Motivation. Why different students are moved to action may be explained by differing sources and degrees of motivation. Students in entry courses may range from those who would really prefer not to be there at all to those who are internally committed to performing excellently in that discipline.

Teachers who display enthusiasm and make an effort to reach students as individuals often can create a more positive attitude toward the subject.

A significant challenge in all entry courses is to bring students to the excitement and satisfaction possible from study and involvement with the subject matter. Teaching at this level can provide the reward of seeing beginning students select the discipline as their major field. If the motivation of beginning students is not addressed, it also can carry the risk of discouraging a student from finding any value in the subject at all.

6. ***Expectations.*** Students' views about what is a reasonable expectation for their performance are greatly affected by their past experiences. Secondary education has widely varying standards for rigor as well as volume of work expected. When student expectations are at variance from professor expectations, the quality of learning can be impeded. Making expectations explicit in a detailed, well-structured syllabus is especially needed at this level. It should be clear about what will be assigned when and exactly what they are to do. As students mature intellectually, they will do better with less structure; however, initially they need defined guides.

Verbal explanations of organization are especially important. Telling students what they are going to learn at the beginning of a class and how it relates to previous sessions as well as summarizing at the end of the period are essential to providing the context for learning. Using organizing phrases are also helpful such as: " . . . now that we have studied the general principle, let's look at three specific applications of it."

7. ***Study Skills.*** Prior experience and expectation may also determine how efficiently and effectively students operate as learners. It is obvious that skills in reading comprehension and speed as well as fundamental ability to manipulate numerical values and express oneself orally or in writing are essential. Other important skills include managing time, note-taking, organizing ideas for study, accessing library resources, and reducing test anxiety. Professors can provide study tips to students; they can spot-check notes to see how well students are gathering important ideas and organizing them. Asking for schedules with identified study times can be helpful or assigning a successful former student to conduct sessions on how to study this subject can be used. Referral to professional

staff who provide individualized study skill assistance may be an option.

ENVIRONMENT OF THE ACADEMIC COMMUNITY

Since introductory courses often represent a student's first experience with academe, it is an important time to establish attitudes about this particular institution, the academic environment, and learning itself.

Entering freshmen often express feelings of isolation, loneliness, or stress in their new environment. Instructional activities which require getting acquainted with some other members of the class can be constructive. Providing opportunities to talk in class as well as work together in groups on assignments can further both intellectual and social goals. Techniques for the teacher to learn and use students' names are well worth the effort for communicating that students are valued as individuals. Even special care to smile and communicate openness is important in working with these new students. Explicitly telling students they are an important part of the academic community may raise their self-esteem.

Professors in these classes are key to providing examples or models of the academic life. Students at this point are not only looking for ways of behaving in the university community, but they are also open to establishing expectations for themselves. What constitutes an educated person and how this course contributes to that end need to be addressed. They can encourage students to participate in other campus opportunities to integrate subject matter into real life experiences.

College teachers can draw beginners into the academic community by demonstrating the methods of the discipline and making its assumptions explicit, by modeling attitudes toward the subject matter and learning, and by personalizing their approaches to teaching and learning.

CONCLUSION

The most effective teaching strategies take into account both the nature of the subject matter and that of the students. Whether the class is large or small, beginning students need support in learning materials and becoming members of the academic community.

Many times introductory courses are assigned to less-experienced teachers. While it is true that the level of subject matter expertise demands breadth more than depth, the complexity of decisions about teaching strategies makes this a very difficult assignment. A faculty member who is assigned the task of planning and implementing instruction for beginning students in introductory-level courses needs incentives, recognition, support, and resources to teach these students in the best way possible.

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How To Prevent Students

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I was relaxed, comfortable, waiting a few moments more until the anesthesia wore completely off. A bit of casual conversation by the dentist might be appropriate, perhaps even expected, after the crown was seated and cemented.

But, there was a hesitant tone in Alix's voice: "Do you mind, uh, if I ask you a question?"

"Of course not," I said, reaching over my shoulder to hit the button to tilt up the chair a bit. I'd spent enough time around dentists that I was quite at ease with them, and I had come to know my way around their environment. In fact, some of my best friends are dentists, Alix among them.

"I feel sort of funny asking you this, but we've known each other for a long time . . . "

True; our friendship went back several years to when Alix was a dental student, and we had kept in close touch after graduation. By now, we were colleague-to-colleague, rather than student-professor or patient-dentist.

" . . . well, you know I've always been tuned in to patient education, and I have a practice that is highly oriented to prevention . . ."

True, again; Alix was a socially sensitive person and had gone to a progressive dental school; I would have expected nothing else.

" . . . but it doesn't always work—I don't seem to be really

getting through to some of my patients. They come back for recall, and they're in just as bad a shape as on their previous visit. And a few of them almost seem to resent and resist my efforts."

"I know," I said, "a couple of members of my family may be in that category."

A slight, but knowing smile crossed Alix's face.

"What can I do, how can I get them to cooperate, how can I get them to do what they should do?"

In a moment of minor inspiration, I tilted the chair all the way up, swung my legs to the side, and got up.

"Here," I said, "Sit down."

Alix's eyes questioned me.

"Go ahead, sit in the chair," I insisted.

She did, and swung her legs up. I tilted the chair and adjusted it to the appropriately supine treatment position.

"How does it feel?" I asked.

"My God!" Alix exclaimed, "I never realized! It's . . . well, it's like . . . I feel so helpless, so out of control, so vulnerable!"

"Do you suppose that may have anything to do with your patients' attitudes?"

"Yeah, I never thought of it that way before," she replied. "I'm in charge, and they're subservient. No wonder I have trouble getting them to be responsible for their own health care. How could I do that to them?"

"Let me suggest that you didn't do anything *to* them. Maybe that's just the natural state of affairs between patient and practitioner. Maybe you should focus on what you *haven't* done to *reduce* their depending entirely on you. Your professional knowledge and skill are always going to place some distance between you and your patients; you have to accept that, and it's not all bad, of course. But you might search for alternatives that don't accentuate it and for things that you can do that will help keep it from preventing them from becoming good patients."

Alix nodded agreement, tilted the chair, and got up.

We explored the matter further. Another thing that we concluded was that a dentist can do *too much* for a patient or promise too much—for example, by implying that anything that goes wrong can be "fixed" by the dentist, literally insuring that the patient stays in the dentist's good hands. There is little

for the patient to be responsible for; there is little need to care about one's own health. In the name of prevention, the patient has been prevented from becoming a good patient.

Alix and I became so involved in discussing these issues that we ran 'way into her next appointment. She scheduled me for another appointment—wisely, for a double one—so that we could continue our exploration of the subject.

When I returned in two weeks, we examined an additional dimension that might lead patients to avoidance behavior, rather than to approach behavior with regard to dental care: the environment of the dental office. Fortunately, there was no inane television set to deal with, but we decided to replace the canned "elevator music" from the local radio station with good tapes carefully selected from Alix's library of recordings. In general, the patient waiting area passed our inspection. A planter that created a minor barrier in front of the receptionist was moved, and a chair was placed in front of the desk for the convenience of patients. The reading material for patients already included an appropriate amount of health information.

Then we considered how Alix and her assistants had been conducting patient education activities. Frequently, conferences with patients were being held at chairside or at a nearby desk. We decided that whenever possible it would be better to carry out this function completely away from the treatment area, at a table where patient and practitioner could sit side by side. The staff also reaffirmed that good communication would be enhanced by their listening attentively to patients' questions and being especially careful to not respond to them prematurely. We even examined how the attire of the staff might affect relationships with patients. Thus we identified a lot of little adjustments that added up to an improved office climate.

When I left Alix's office that day, I felt pretty good. We had discovered a lot that was likely to ameliorate the problem Alix had brought up. I smiled to myself as I anticipated the customary billing that I would get from Alix's office: charges for dental procedures and a final add-on for "preventive dentistry." I mused that maybe I should send her a bill in return, for "preventive education."

However, as I was driving home, my pseudo-smugness began to leave me. A nagging set of thoughts began to creep

into my head. Alix's question "How can I get my patients to cooperate?" began to translate into my own question: "How can I get my *students* to cooperate?" Why did I think that her problem with some patients was any different from my problem with some students? How could I get them to work *with* me rather than to resist my efforts? How could I get them to be *responsible* rather than to be dependent on me? How could I get them to *approach* learning rather than to avoid it? Could it be that the things Alix and I had worked out for her practice also needed to be applied in my classroom? Could it be that things I was doing *for* students, with all good intentions, were actually working against them?

Had I inadvertently been preventing students—independent, responsible students who exercised initiative for their own learning—just as Alix inadvertently had been preventing patients, ironically in the name of prevention itself? It was a sobering thought, and I began to look at my teaching from a new perspective.

Over the years it had become my custom to provide students with a lot of duplicated material: course descriptions, periodic assignment sheets, chapter outlines, sample exams, solution sheets for examinations, and the like. I re-examined these procedures. Some of the material was distributed in the interests of accuracy and efficiency. On the other hand, when it got down to sample exams, I wondered whether I was doing *too much* for students. Would they not learn more if *they* had to review the chapters themselves, infer the relative importance of topics, and organize their own study strategies? Wouldn't it be better in the long run if they took this responsibility themselves rather than being dependent on me? Definitely yes, I concluded.

Just before the next examination, I started to work *with* my students, helping them to organize their review process. By the end of the term I wanted them to be able to do this completely on their own, with my role being reduced to that of a consultant. In another course, I asked the students themselves to design and submit questions that *they* thought were appropriate for the exam; I used these as the basis for a review during the last class meeting before the test. What were the results? I couldn't tell in any scientific way, of course, but I knew I had made the right moves. (Several students confirmed this on

the course evaluations.)

For a certain chapter in statistics that contained an unusual mass of intricate formulas, I had been giving out "formula sheets" that students could use during examinations. I changed that process to one of allowing students to bring to the exam one note card, 3 inches by 5 inches, containing on one side whatever information they wished. I cautioned them that putting too much information and full problem solutions on the card could be counterproductive; they might not be able to find what they wanted among all the fine printing. Again, this new procedure seemed to work. Students reported that the very process of organizing and preparing the card helped them learn the material. Some used only part of the card. Many reported that they used the card during the exam only as a final confirmation of information that they had internalized in preparing the card; it was a check, rather than a crutch.

When students asked me to work a troublesome homework problem in class, I used to jump right into it and efficiently produce an ideal solution. Now, I have other students work the problem or at least make significant contributions to the solution. Sometimes they may start to lead me down an unproductive path, but I draw learning out of that, too. The process often takes longer, but I feel the results are well worth it, and I have adjusted my organization and design of class activity to accommodate it.

Flushed with these successes, I continued to look for ways to wean students from depending on me, and one of my main goals has become to try to convert them to responsible, independent learners. One aspect of this is to examine whether I am accenting my authority position too much. To be sure, I *am* the authority, both in knowledge and in controlling the chips: grades. It would be foolhardy to think that I could mask that fact and the students' perception of it; even if I could, it would probably be undesirable to do so. But I might be able to remove some of the visible symbols of that authority in order to generate more of a climate of working together. In my office, I moved my desk so that it no longer separates me from the student; we work together off the end of the desk. Then, I found an even better arrangement: I moved a conference table so that I can easily shift into working side by side whenever a student comes in for help.

In the classroom, I don't change from a standing position to a sitting position, given the constant need for board work in my field. However, I have made one change that seems of major significance: I moved the table and lectern from front-and-center to the side of the room. This immediately changed the ambience in the room. Surprisingly, it gave me greater freedom of movement—I no longer had a home base to gravitate back to. I found that taking a position near the ends of the front row seemed to encourage students to participate more in analyzing problems, proposing solutions, and contributing in general to the development of the material. I found that I had to move the table each day before class, because the custodial staff always returned it to the "spot of authority." I didn't mind the small extra effort; now *I* was defining the climate of the classroom, rather than by default allowing the janitor to do so.

Did my modified classroom behavior work? I think so, although I can offer no data from a controlled experiment to support that contention. I think the response of students was positive, too, as evidenced by comments such as this, made by a student introducing me to his mother: " . . . he's a professor, but he's . . . well . . . he's different! He's always working *with* us."

There were other ways that I tried to adjust the climate of my courses. Taking a cue from Alix, I modified my student conference procedures. Formerly, I had announced "open" conference hours, times when I would definitely be in my office and available for consultation. I knew that students sometimes came by, saw that I was with another student or on the telephone, and then left before I could signal them to wait. Under the new arrangement, I still had definite hours, but I encouraged them to telephone or to see me after class to make an appointment during these times (or at other times, if necessary) in order to not have to wait to see me. The number of conferences increased.

I also tried to arrive early for class and to engage students in informal conversation. I made a point of not doing this from a position in the front of the room; rather, I sat in a seat on the side and varied that position from day to day. I was especially attentive about listening carefully to students.

Well, you get the idea without my citing examples endlessly.

By keeping in mind two or three basic principles, I continue to find ways of modifying my approach to students so as to promote their skills in learning. (You notice that I do not now list those principles, as you expected; I want *you* to look back over what I've said and formulate them for yourself.) I'm trying to be particularly sensitive to things that I might be doing in the guise of helping students that in fact might be preventing them, however subtly, from being students. I'm trying to give them the freedom to learn and grow on their own. It's an exciting endeavor.

Today, I got a bill from Alix's office. The last item on it was the charge that I had come to expect, but this time it was worded "patient education." I wrote out a check immediately and on impulse wrote "tuition" in the space on the lower left. Across the bottom of the statement I wrote "THANKS!" in large letters. And added, "—for helping me learn how to teach students rather than to prevent them." I can't wait 'til my next appointment to tell her all about it!

Instructional Developers and Instructors as Collaborators in the Oral Presentation Assignment

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Student oral presentations offer a wide range of benefits to the audience, to the students giving the presentation, and to the instructor, However, like so many other potentially valuable teaching techniques, the student oral presentation can become ineffective by underestimating the importance of planning and by overestimating students' abilities. The instructional developer plays a significant role in helping instructors maximize the positive experiences for students preparing, giving, or listening to oral presentations. The instructional developer serves as a guide to lead instructors through the maze of decisions necessary in any teaching situation and, when appropriate, to suggest other goals and teaching strategies. It is the purpose of this paper not to give a specific formula for effective oral presentations in a classroom but rather to discuss aspects of the oral presentation that the faculty developer can help the instructor explore. In this article, student oral presentations will be defined as those projects 1) assigned in advance of the actual presentation date, 2) given by the student orally, 3) presented to an audience, usually in a classroom situation, and 4) graded or evaluated by the instructor. The aspects of an oral presentation which are appropriate for the developer to help the instructor examine include goal setting, topic selection, research, grading, audience, and the student presenter.

GOAL SETTING

The first question the developer should explore with the instructor is: What do you want students to learn from this course? Once the goals are established, the developer has an avenue for directing the instructor towards a consideration of appropriate means for achieving the desired goals. The instructional developer can assist the instructor in determining if the oral presentation is an appropriate technique to accomplish the instructor's goals. The developer can indicate to the instructor that assigning oral presentations to students is an excellent teaching technique if the primary goal is to provide practice in oracy (public speaking and listening skills). If the instructor is not interested in developing students' public speaking abilities or if the instructor does not feel there is sufficient class time for oral presentations, then alternative techniques, such as research papers, may be more appropriate. If the goal of the instructor is to expose students to a greater quantity of literature on a topic, then perhaps book and article critiques are better suited for achieving the goals.

Instructors may express additional goals that the oral presentation format may adequately address. One goal may be to provide students with an opportunity to make use of existing research knowledge and to learn new skills when seeking alternative resources. Another goal may be to allow practice in the organization of academic materials; this practice provides an opportunity for students to experience the process of choosing the most appropriate information and concepts central to a well-thought-out topic. An oral presentation can provide the impetus for thorough knowledge of a topic area. The prospect of standing in front of the entire class can be a powerful incentive for the student to prepare and know the material. Regardless of the instructor's goals, the role of the instructional developer is to assist the instructor in making the goals explicit so the presentations will reach the objectives of the assignment.

TOPIC SELECTION

Once oral presentations have been chosen as an appropriate teaching technique, the developer can assist the instructor in establishing the parameters of the topics to be covered. The developer can explore with the instructor some alternative selection strategies. A number of equally acceptable methods

for setting parameters exist; the choice depends on the nature of the course and on the specific course goals set by the instructor. The developer must make the instructor cognizant of the alternatives and some of their likely results. This may be accomplished by asking the instructor questions such as: Are the presentations designed to present essential material to the class? Are the presentations a means for students to delve into a portion of the subject matter which interests them the most?

One method for establishing topic parameters merely lets the range of topics be open to the interest of the students; this option is characterized by the statement "choose a topic." At times, instructors may be trapped in their own occupational culture, not realizing that students pick from among a side and varied range of topics, topics that may not fit together in a coherent package. Although this approach provides a broad exposure to the subject matter, students may find it difficult to focus their topics.

A second topic selection method provides a list of topics for students to choose from; this option is more restrictive, yet still provides a degree of flexibility for students. Some of the consequences of this method include a more narrowly defined focus and a higher rate of congruency with the subject matter. While students may not be particularly excited about their topics, this method does allow the instructor to have more control over the range of material.

In other instances, it might be most appropriate for the instructor to actually assign specific topics to students assuring that the topics will fit the goals of the course. Students may, in fact, prefer the latter two approaches which reduce ambiguity and uncertainty on their part. However, it may reduce the level of excitement among many students since it limits their choice of research projects. Whichever method is utilized, the developer should aid the instructor in working through the consequences as they relate to the goals of the course in general and the oral assignment in particular.

COLLECTING RESEARCH

If the instructor has decided to use the oral presentation to provide students with an opportunity to conduct research, then the instructional developer and the instructor should

explore several resource potentials. A discussion of research should include ways in which the class will go about doing the research, the kinds of research possible, and the limitations and possibilities of the school library. It is easy for instructors to overestimate students' abilities to conduct research; what may be common sense to the instructor may not be to a student, particularly at the undergraduate level. Knowing how to find and organize information is a learned skill. As she/he would for any assignment requiring research, the instructor should be prepared to explain clearly the type of research required. The sources available for ferreting out information are practically limitless; however, students will quite likely establish the library as their primary source.

An expectation of library research provides the developer with a forum for working with the instructor to explain discipline-specific journals, periodicals, and other source materials that will make up a valid research bibliography. Students will not instinctively understand the difference between periodicals such as *Time* or *Good Housekeeping* and scientific journals such as *Social Problems* or *English Quarterly*. If the research is to reflect scholarly activities, then the instructor must make that requirement clear to the students.

Research, whether for oral presentations or other assignments, is an activity for which planning is imperative. Since some students are not familiar with the organization and operation of libraries, the developer might suggest to the instructor that the class tour the library or have a library representative explain how to use the facility and discuss specific research sources. This discussion should include resources which students may not know about, such as abstracts, discipline-specific indexes, et cetera.

The developer should alert the instructor to the limits of the library. A research assignment could exhaust the library's resources and put some students at a disadvantage for finding appropriate material. Before assignments are made, the instructor should investigate the amount of material the school library has on a given subject limiting the chance that source material will be depleted. The instructor may decide to place some source materials on reserve so they will be available to a greater number of students. Ultimately, it may be necessary to direct students to other available resources or, if necessary, reevaluate

the expectations of the research to be completed. Here, again, the developer can help the instructor make a realistic appraisal of the research assignment.

The use of research in conjunction with an oral presentation should be suggested as an opportune time for the instructor to discuss with the class different topic approaches. For example, alcoholism is a subject which can be addressed by various disciplines such as sociology, psychology, and social work. Students will not intuitively recognize and/or be able to articulate the differences in conceptual schemes. The students need to know that the focus of the presentation will vary depending on the orientation of the discipline.

The developer should caution the instructor not to overestimate the students' skills when she/he requires original research. The instructor should be aware of the amount of previous research experience students bring to the class. However well-prepared students might be, gentle prodding of their memory will prove useful. Consequently, the developer can discuss with the instructor various research strategies students may find beneficial. One such technique is to produce brief handouts which outline methods for conducting content analysis or survey analysis and which outline procedures for interviewing or developing observational skills. The instructor can consider giving examples of each methodological type or can inform students where examples may be found. If students are not prepared in research methods, it might be appropriate for the instructor to give specific directions in research methods or to limit research expectations.

GRADING

An important question the instructor and developer need to consider is: How will the oral presentation assignments be graded? Ideally, instructors should establish grading guidelines prior to giving the oral presentation assignment. In addition to alleviating students' concerns about how they will be evaluated, a clear statement of expectations by the instructor will make achieving the objectives of the assignment more likely. The role of the instructional developer may be to explore alternative grading systems with the instructor and to propose alternative ways for the instructor to distribute this information

to the students. One simple technique is to supply an outline or critique sheet including a detailed breakdown of the presentation format with corresponding grade weights. Students will then have precise information about how the assignment will be graded. The handout will also aid students in making decisions about which aspects of their presentations need the most attention.

Students may be especially concerned about how much of their grade will depend on speaking or acting ability. In discussing this aspect of the oral presentation grade with the instructor, it is important for the faculty developer to point out that just as spelling and grammar "count" in a written report outside of English class, so should good oral delivery "count" in oral reports outside of speech class. Since the instructor may not be trained specifically on the technical aspects of speech delivery such as tone, pitch, pause, or emphasis, she/he probably will not want to grade on those aspects. However, student presenters should be reminded that they are responsible for delivering the material in a manner that is clear and understandable to everyone in the room.

If the instructor has students who feel they have no speaking abilities whatsoever, other grading opportunities are possible. A viable alternative that can be suggested by the developer is for the instructor to require each student giving an oral presentation to hand in an outline and bibliography sometime well in advance of the presentation. Outlines will help the students to ascertain and focus on their main points and will also make the instructor aware of the logic employed in preparing the presentation. Bibliographies, in turn, will help the instructor evaluate the degree to which students used acceptable sources.

Along with the outline, the presenters can be asked to supply test and discussion questions. These questions are an obvious aid to the instructor, and they further encourage the presenter to focus on his/her main points. By requiring the student presenter to write out test questions, the instructor gives the message to the rest of the class that the student's report is considered important information for which they are responsible.

AUDIENCE

What role will the audience play in the oral presentation? This question may prove to be the hardest one for the developer to assist the instructor with, given a conceptually more limited range of solutions. Often, the most neglected and most difficult aspect of the oral presentation assignment is achieving audience involvement. If the oral presentation is to be effective for all, the audience must be accountable for the information and must have an active role in the assignment. Whether the material presented is new or supplementary, the instructor needs to make clear to the audience the value of the presentation and the degree of importance the information has in the course content.

The most common method of involving the audience is to include the presented information on tests and quizzes. It might be appropriate for the instructor to require individuals or small groups to supply pertinent questions for testing purposes. Another method is to require outlines from the audience after each presentation. Either activity may be done by individuals or in small groups. Small groups can be more advantageous because they reduce the instructor's paper corrections and still manage to ensure greater retention of information.

Often, a question and answer period at the end of the delivery is a profitable aspect of the presentation. It provides a time for clarification and, most importantly, involves listener participation.

STUDENT PRESENTER

One of the most stressful situations a student will likely be placed in during her/his college career is that of presenting material in front of a class. The process by which material is presented and the content of the report are equally important. What will the instructor need to do to prepare the students for the actual process of presenting their reports? Regardless of how well a student has researched his/her topic, if the presentation is poorly prepared or unorganized, the point will be lost. In essence, using oral presentations as a teaching technique assumes that the students have both teaching and research skills.

When students give an oral presentation, it is important

that they realize they are not just parroting their collected bits of information, but that they are actually teaching important material to the class. Consequently, they are responsible for the delivery of information and concepts in an interesting, clear, and understandable manner. Although many instructors may not be well-versed in speaking skills, they do have a wide array of teaching techniques that may be of great help to the students in accomplishing their task. In this area the instructional developer can be of great assistance to the instructor. He/she can explore with the instructor that instructor's own strategies for delivery and retention. This exploration is an excellent technique for helping instructors examine their own skills as teachers. The instructors may be advised to share some of these strategies with the students so that student presentations can be more effective.

SPEAKING TIPS

It will benefit all involved if the instructor spends the necessary time and effort reinforcing appropriate speaking behaviors prior to the presentations. This reinforcement will have an impact on the overall quality of the presentations in two ways. First, students will be more familiar with the mechanics of public speaking. Second, it is probable that a greater expectation of quality in the delivery of the presentation will emerge.

If classtime allows, a handout of public speaking tips and a brief discussion of those items will give students direction and greater confidence. At the minimum, an outline will provide students with the fundamentals of public speaking. Often, students' fears of public speaking can be eliminated by having them practice in small groups. (See appendix for a list of speaking tips which can be used when working with instructors.)

CONCLUSION

Faculty developers have a unique opportunity to help instructors enhance the classroom experience for all participants. Developers can advise faculty of fundamental practices for designing and implementing the student oral presentation resulting in a better classroom encounter. At the very least,

the instructional developer can assist the instructor in clarifying and articulating his/her course expectations and goals.

Although this article has concentrated on the oral lecture-type presentation, the reader need not disregard other forms of student-led presentations. Discussions, field trips, films, and readings are only a few of the many possibilities. Whatever the form of presentation, students will require explicit direction and guidance from the instructor.

One final note—when left up to their own ingenuity, students will be able to produce an adequate presentation. However, the range of quality in the presentations will vary greatly. There will always be variability, but careful planning by the instructor with aid from the faculty developer will encourage more careful planning by students and will limit the extent and nature of the deviation.

APPENDIX

The following are tips that the instructional developer can pass on to faculty and students:

1. Speakers must know their materials! A student can dramatically improve his/her delivery simply by being well-prepared.
2. Speakers need to show enthusiasm. An audience will be more enthusiastic if the speaker is enthusiastic.
3. The speaker needs to know his/her audience. Who will be listening? How involved with the topic is the audience? How informed is the audience about the topic? Will there be questions during or after the presentation? What kinds of questions does the presenter anticipate?
4. Speakers should strive to be spontaneous in their delivery. Spontaneity makes the talk more interesting to listen to. A speaker can and should use note cards but should not read from a paper.
5. An outline, especially one turned in prior to the presentation, can help the speaker clarify the main points and supporting information, anecdotes, et cetera, needs to be established. The presentation should be kept simple and to the point. The student presenter should be sure to utilize all the appropriate parts of a speech including introduction, body, and conclusion.
6. Visual aids are a good way to draw and maintain interest from an audience as well as to highlight main points. However, the visual aids must be appropriate and must support the presentation. To help keep the report proceeding smoothly, the aids should be checked to make sure they work, and when not being referred to, set aside or covered up.

7. The speaker must practice the speech out loud. While practicing, he/she should go through all the physical motions and gestures expected to be used during the presentation.
8. Stage appearance is often as critical to the mechanics of the presentation as the material itself. Speakers should establish a positive demeanor and expect to be nervous. Students need to be assured that most everyone feels anxiety when talking in front of others.
9. Speakers should not apologize. First, they should not need to, and second, apologies do not move the speech forward. If a mistake is noted by a member of the audience, the speaker should thank him/her for the information, correct the mistake, and proceed.

PART IV
RESEARCH

Balanced somewhere between thinking and doing is the need for verification by experimentation. We should never move too far away from the spirit of inquiry which drives us to examine the fundamental assumptions of our professions. If our elegant models and programs have no grounding in reality, they will fail us in practice. Therefore, we include a section on research efforts and encourage others to share their findings with our readers.

The two papers in this section include a study sponsored by POD itself on the health of the profession as reflected in the activities of development on various campuses and an analysis of our target population, the faculty, who they are and why they're here. Both papers should result in more questions and encourage more research as well as pointing the way for better practice.

Teaching Academic Career Paths: Implications for Faculty Development

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The central focus of our work as faculty developers is on the teaching careers of faculty members. Whether the scholar lecturing to a large audience or the individual guiding discussion in a seminar, we seek to enhance teaching strengths, ameliorate concerns, and suggest improvements. And on our campuses we have made progress—often with individual clients, sometimes with departments or schools.

But what do we know of the forces that shape the careers of these teachers? When and why do they choose an academic career? How do they come to a college or university and what attracts them? These are a few of the key questions I asked faculty members in a large research-oriented university in order to better understand their career development. They are also questions of increasing interest to researchers who seek to understand the professoriate (Baldwin, 1979; Corcoran & Clark, 1984; Finkelstein, 1984).

To answer the above questions, I conducted in-depth interviews followed by questionnaires.[1] The sample of 112 faculty, from one department in humanities, one in natural sciences, and two professional schools, was stratified by academic rank and sex.[2]

I found, like other researchers, that the career course is shaped by many forces, some common, others unique to discipline, school, rank, or sex. But the more striking differences

were among academic disciplines or schools. Disciplinary affiliation influenced the timing of career choices, the reasons for choosing a discipline and academia, and the draw to an institution. I relate some of these findings, not only because they offer a fascinating look at the "roots" of academics, but because they inform our work in faculty development. I will conclude with some implications for the future direction of faculty development programs.

DECISION POINTS

Faculty members described two career decision points. The first was choosing a discipline, which often preceded the decision to pursue an academic career. Individuals typically chose a discipline as undergraduates and an academic career later. Still, a range of circumstances and different time spans were required to put a career together. Some seemingly came to academe from the cradle, while others took an indirect route.

Faculty in the natural sciences and humanities reported

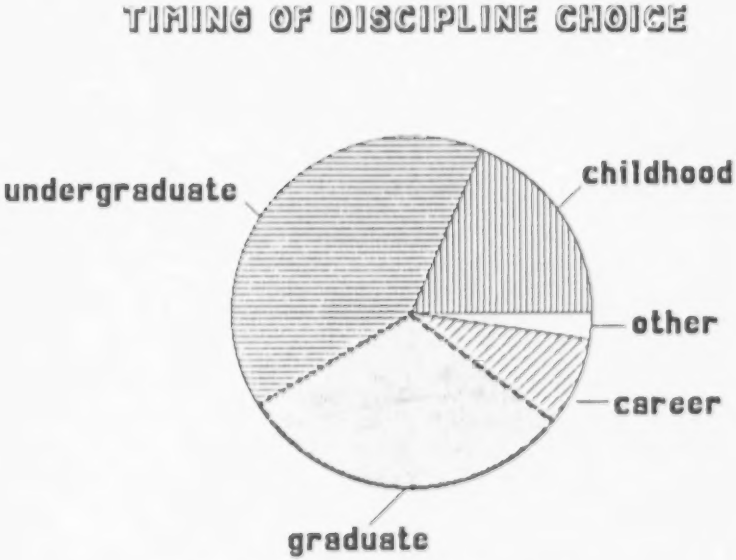

FIGURE I. Timing of Discipline Choice

earlier decisions than interviewees in the two professional schools. For almost half the scientists, an interest in the physical world manifested itself in childhood or early adolescence, and nearly everyone had decided on a career in science by the end of undergraduate education: "I was home looking through my old things. There in my grade school autobiography I wrote that I would like to be a scientist. So I had that goal from when I was very young, but it wasn't the goal of being a professor or researcher." Humanities faculty made slightly later choices. Still, almost all had set a disciplinary course during graduate studies.

In contrast, individuals in the professional schools reported more exploration and changes of major in undergraduate or graduate school, and as many as a third shifted content areas along the career path. One described his search as an undergraduate for a flexible program of study that would accommodate interests in anthropology, biology, physics, ecology, and math: "I must have switched majors four times."

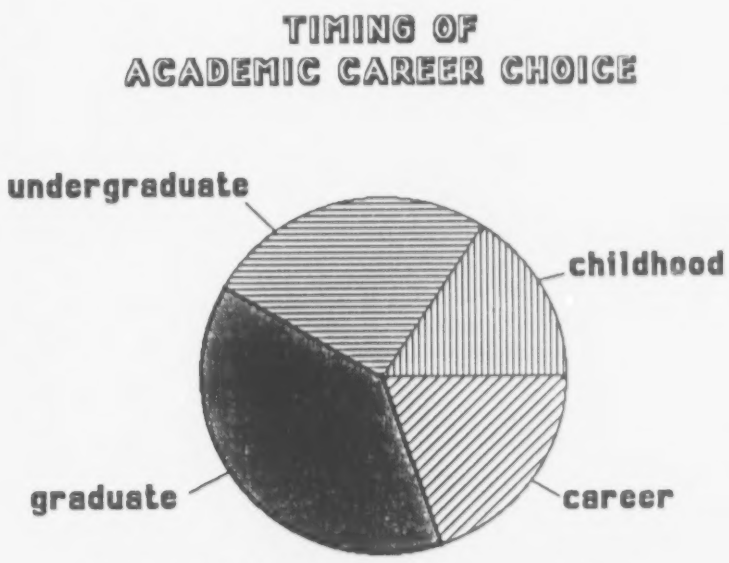

FIGURE II. Timing of Academic Career Choice

Women reported slightly later discipline choices, but in many cases they could be more accurately defined as renewed choices. It was not uncommon for women to return to a field of study after marriage, divorce, part-time academic appointments, public school teaching, or jobs outside academia.

Most faculty members made a decision to pursue an academic career during or upon completion of graduate studies. By that point, it was a straightforward decision, particularly for faculty who viewed their nonacademic options as limited. As one individual in the humanities explained, "In my field, once you get the master's, you're on the ship; you've made your decision."

Only about a fifth of the interviewees decided prior to college to seek an academic career. These persons described themselves as having always wanted to teach college. Others hoped to teach, but not necessarily at university level: "I wanted to be a teacher—but the option of higher education never occurred to me."

A fourth came to higher education from careers in government, private consulting, research institutes, or public schools. These individuals were primarily in the professional schools, and their choice of academia often was deliberate. Several traded financial remuneration for more personal rewards—autonomy, intellectual stimulation, interaction with young people: "I could go back to industry and make more money. But I like the freedom of academia. In industry, projects have to be done. Here, I can pursue interesting research or teaching."

INFLUENCES

Choosing an academic career is a complex process, shaped not only by individual inclinations, but also by family background and social contests. Faculty members cited four primary influences on career choice: individual factors, image of the career, significant people, and socio-historical events.

Individual Factors

Interest in a discipline, academic success, family expectations, and a process of "drift" were the most often reported personal influences on career choices. Many faculty members described a "love of a discipline" tailor-made to their individual

style. Scientists pointed to talents that served their work: "You could call it organized intelligence. You need that to manage research—the grants, equipment, graduate students, post-docs, and technicians." Several in the humanities department described pleasure in the solitary, intellectual, independent features of the professoriate: "You need a certain monastic temperament to enjoy isolating yourself in the library for long hours of reading, thinking, and writing."

In the two professional schools, the attraction and the research were very different—more collaborative, applied, and for a different constituency: "I was somewhat dissatisfied with both my majors. They seemed highly formalized and abstract. I became more interested in problem solving and applying research to the public—in creating products with outside application."

For others, choosing an academic career was a natural

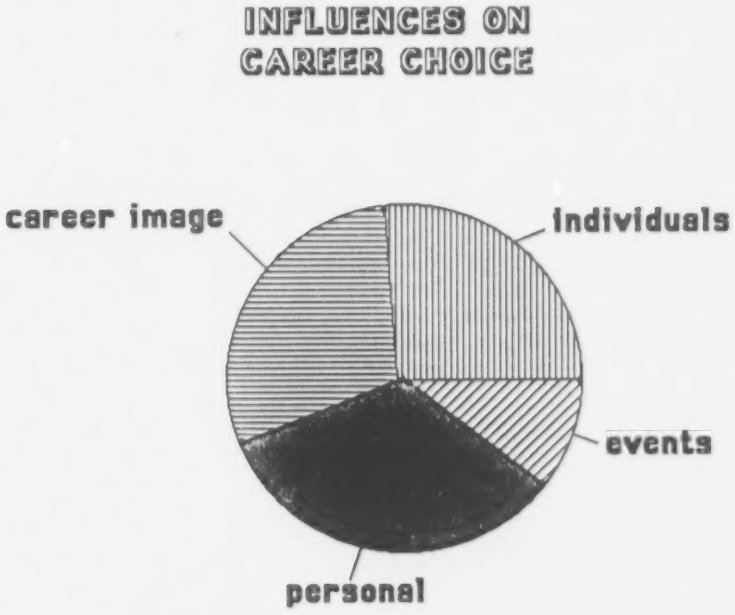

FIGURE III. Influences on Career Choice

outgrowth of always doing well in school. More women than men reported academic success as a motivator: "I was always encouraged in school work simply by having it come easy." Closely related in influence were families that valued "intellectual achievement, music, and reading," often despite a limited income. One respondent spoke for many when he characterized his family as "working class intellectuals" and his childhood an "enculturation into an academic career."

Lest one conclude that faculty members made conscious decisions at every point in their careers, a third of the sample reported that they came into the career by happenstance: "In the end, I was committed to an academic career, but it was never thought out, it was something I drifted into." Faculty in the professional schools and humanities were more likely to describe the choice as accidental than were those in science.

Finally, half the women (but no men) reported that career choices had been circumscribed by sex role expectations. For some, barriers were set during early socialization: "I was conditioned by my parents to be a teacher. Women taught." For others, the structure of academia posed hurdles: "I wanted to be a veterinarian. But that option was not possible because schools of veterinary medicine didn't admit women." These women resourcefully fashioned choices out of limited options.

Career Image

Over two-thirds of the sample were influenced by the image of an academic career. Faculty members came with an idealistic view of the academy, although some ruefully added that expectations had been reshaped by reality. Many individuals were lured by an image of the research, scholarly or teaching life. For some the rewards of the lifestyle—prestige, autonomy, security—were additional attractions.

For most, a desire to influence their field of research or to contribute to the profession of teaching was compelling. Desire to do research was highest in the sciences and one professional school, while desire to teach was more influential in the other professional school. Faculty members in the humanities department seemed to view the two roles as more complementary, and were drawn to both: "I set out to prove I was a good scholar and good teacher. I once read, 'Research is to teaching as sin is to the confessional. If you haven't done one,

you have nothing to say in the other.' "

Assistant and full professors often described an early attraction to research aspects of the career, while associate professors more frequently reported an inclination toward teaching and working with students: "Research is something personal; teaching is a faculty thing."

Significant People

For over two thirds of the sample, professors, relatives, colleagues, or other individuals significantly influenced their career decisions. A college or graduate school professor was, in fact, one of the most frequently reported influences on academic career choice, especially in the humanities and sciences: "An important part of why I ended up in academic life was my relationship with individuals who seemed to have lives of great integrity and to be devoted to knowledge. Those mentor relationships were very important."

Significant people were mentioned more by women than men, but women reported more support from parents, colleagues, and student peers and less direction from their professors. They more often described a naivete about or isolation from faculty sponsors: "It never occurred to me to seek help from my professors. I talked with other students and then made my decisions on my own."

Socio-Historical Events

Some faculty members reported career influences reflecting moods and events in the larger society. The 1960s had a compelling effect, positive and negative, on faculty careers across disciplines, rank, and sex. Dramatic increases in the student population, the growth of individual departments and the university itself, the opening of doors to women and minority faculty members, and a societal faith in higher education—all were noted. Many embarked on a career in what they viewed as one of the more "noble" professions: "I was influenced by the idealism of the Kennedy years. Academia seemed a career in which you could do good; in which you had to compromise yourself much less than in business."

Yet for some of those individuals, the decade took its toll. Now reflecting at mid-career, several felt those tumultuous

years and the ensuing disillusionment about institutional change affected their careers: "I was very involved in causes and in University governance. After a few years I was getting the sense that it didn't make a difference. I do think my great contribution was being involved with students. But it all took a lot of time and at the expense of doing scholarship."

The other critical era of influence was post-World War II. Although the war interrupted college and graduate studies, it also offered a hiatus from career decision-making and an opportunity for exploration and alternative experiences. After the war, the G.I. bill, scientific and technological advances, and expansions in higher education heralded what one respondent termed "the golden age of academia." For some, those golden years offered greater opportunities for work and advancement than they had hitherto dreamed of.

CAREER PATTERNS

The ideal faculty career supposedly begins after years of course work, a dissertation, and entry into a first position. Nearly half the interviewees described such a direct path, but slightly over half experienced a more indirect course, interrupted by war, marriage, or other careers. Scientists most reflected the idealized career as three-fourths pursued a direct course from student to university professor: "Since deciding on what area of science to go into, I've just been on track. The rest is straight forward history for anybody who does this. I got my Ph.D., did a post-doc, and came here."

For at least half the faculty in humanities and professional fields, the route was indirect. They were as likely to describe their career course as an evolutionary process, moving because of opportunity and chance, as one based on planning and goal setting: "My academic development has been affected by chance—not random—but rather things I didn't expect. The opportunities that came along and I took advantage of have represented the milestones in my career."

Women's careers moved more slowly than men's, particularly for women in higher ranks. Even prior to entering higher education, they had limited aspirations; many never imagined themselves in a university setting. And while they described themselves as excellent students, they seemed to work at the periphery of academia; "I was a better student than my future

husband, but I was never taken seriously by my professors. They thought I'd get married and have children."

Women who cited influential professors tended to describe them as charismatic teachers or researchers—"great men" rather than advisers. Once in academia, rising through the ranks and garnering professional recognition were slowed by lecturer or part-time appointments characterized by heavy teaching loads and little encouragement to do research. In reflecting on their past, however, women did not view themselves as victims: "I just went forward, unaware of the difficulties I faced."

Although one might expect family responsibilities to slow women's careers significantly, generally this was not the case. Male faculty members expressed at least equal concern about dual careers, commuter marriages, and childrearing. In fact, the majority of women interviewed were not married and few had children. For many, balancing family life with a university career seemed untenable. One women explained: "I think the big turning point in deciding on an academic career was whether I wanted to exclude as much of my life as my professors did for a career. I realized that in order to be really good in my field I would have to give up most of the rest of my life."

CONCLUSIONS

Individuals make early decisions about careers at several levels, but many are characteristic of discipline. Among scientists and humanists, attraction to a discipline preceded or closely followed an interest in research or teaching. In professional schools, the opportunity to work with ideas and people in the public arena was as attractive, if not more, than discipline. Beyond different emphases on academic roles, research and teaching take on different form and meaning among disciplinary groups. There are striking contrasts in the training, attitudes, and activities of teachers in different disciplines; faculty developers need to recognize and respect those differences. On my campus this finding has influenced faculty development work. We gather information from clients not only about their teaching but also about the departmental milieu (e.g. attitudes toward teaching, rewards for teaching). We've sketched out "profiles" of a number of departments which help us to design appropriate interventions and strategies for change.

The timing of career choices is influenced by disciplinary affiliation and can affect investment in teaching. In sciences and humanities, faculty often described interest and experiences in research during undergraduate and graduate years. Mentors emerged early and played important roles. Early training in research, early sponsorship, and early success in publication, all help status, advancement, and rewards. But, the same faculty described an introduction to an academic culture in which research in the discipline is the central endeavor. In both professional schools it was a less direct and narrow proposition; it seemed easier for faculty members to reassess commitments and explore new options (e.g. multidisciplinary teaching, community teaching, director of honors program) without moving toward the margin of the profession.

Again, our sensitivity to the culture and view of teaching in different disciplines is crucial when working with individuals and their departments. For example, we find that untenured faculty members in the sciences are reluctant to work on teaching projects. This seems logical given their research-oriented career paths and research demands during pre-tenure years. The concept of a mentor, however, is one these faculty understand and find valuable. We've helped some departments to set up "teaching mentor" programs. Each newly appointed faculty member is assigned a teaching mentor who is an advanced member of the faculty and recognized as a distinguished teacher. The mentor is available to assist the young instructor in his or her teaching.

In choosing an academic career faculty members described considerable conflict between research and teaching interests. Such tensions continue throughout the career. In discussing career development, faculty members often separate their research from teaching (Sorcinelli, 1985). Because institutions gain immeasurably from the contribution of faculty who are successful in both roles, faculty development programs need to find ways to assist individuals in planning scholarly and instructional goals that are harmonious—and that benefit both faculty members and the students they teach. We now award funds for multidisciplinary seminars to encourage co-operation and to foster good research and teaching across departments and disciplines. We encourage faculty members to publish or present the results of their projects (scholarly

and teaching renewal, curricular innovations) in professional journals and at meetings of their disciplinary associations. Through these activities, faculty members also can gain recognition as teacher-scholars on a campus, disciplinary and sometimes even national level.

Faculty members need the support of each other. They often reported that a personal or professional relationship with a professor was critical to research or teaching development (although female faculty members found fewer such mentors). Somehow that flavor of collegiality diminished once they completed graduate school and became college teachers. And not surprisingly, faculty members were more likely to describe teaching as an isolating activity. Junior faculty desired the counsel of respected teachers. Colleagues at higher ranks felt their expertise in teaching was underutilized. Faculty development programs need to encourage colleagues of similar and different ranks, ages, and disciplines to help each other in teaching. Besides the mentoring and multidisciplinary programs, we support teaching roundtables, workshops and lecture series, and team teaching.

Interviews with junior faculty members suggest a narrowing of the academic career path. Assistant professors, men and women, are more attracted to research and less to teaching than colleagues at other ranks. Most noticeable, women, whose predecessors had interruptions along the way or who saw teaching and service as a central focus, now follow a route more like their male colleagues. On one hand, junior faculty members and their departments should benefit from the accentuation of a research career path. At the same time, faculty development programs might have to find ways to encourage and reward a commitment to teaching among those now at junior rank. Again, mentoring programs have had a profound effect on junior faculty attitudes toward teaching. Our instructional development fellowships also encourage young faculty to work on teaching by giving them released time and funds for teaching improvement.

Personal characteristics, attitudes, and abilities of faculty differ among discipline and carry over into needs for faculty development. The faculty of an institution are often described as an academic family. In addressing their needs, it might prove useful to look closely at the siblings within that family.

The range of faculty values might be quite different among elder than younger siblings. The opportunities offered to sons might differ from those offered to daughters. But the priorities, aspirations, and sibling rivalries among and within departments are better understood in the context in which they formed—the academic discipline. Faculty developers have called for teaching improvements at individual, departmental and university levels. In the upcoming years, perhaps some of our attention should focus on disciplinary and professional associations. Our efforts to encourage faculty to disseminate information on teaching innovations at meeting of disciplinary associations is a first step.

Finally, it is clear that the context of teaching development is complex and not reducible to a single feature. Personal characteristics, academic socialization, professional strengths and weaknesses, work, the institutional setting for that work, the life returned to at the end of the day, all contribute to an understanding of faculty members' teaching and research careers. As faculty developers we need to broaden our landscape. We need to look beyond the classroom to other factors that constrain or contribute to faculty members' commitment and effectiveness as teachers.

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NOTES

[1] Coding of the interviews was completed using an inductively derived coding instrument. Approximately 200 variables were developed to categorize interview responses. Analysis of questionnaire data is in process. The interview schedule included:

1. How did you come to choose an academic career?
2. Could you briefly describe your career—the major responsibilities and interests from your first to your current position?
3. What are your major strengths as a faculty member?
4. How does the University recognize or reward your strengths? If not, how might they capitalize on and reward your skills?
5. What skills or abilities would you like to improve? Are there ways the University could assist you to develop or improve the areas mentioned?
6. How can the University assist faculty in developing or enhancing their careers?
7. What are your short- and long-term career goals?
8. Did you ever think of making a career change?
9. How has life outside of work made an impact on your career development?
10. If you were able to start all over again, do you think you would still choose an academic career?

[2]Twenty-one percent of the sample were assistant professors, 30 percent were associate professors, and 49 percent were full professors, percentages which approximate the full-time faculty population. Seventy-two percent of the sample were male, and 28 percent female. Because of the limited information on the career development of women faculty, the sample of females was purposely larger than the 16 percent female faculty population at IU.

A Survey of Faculty Development Practices

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The POD Network decided to conduct a survey of faculty development practices for several reasons. First, many people believed that the "faculty development movement" was a casualty of tight budgets and an inevitable loss of faith in yesterday's strategies; some of us had our doubts. Also, we were curious about just what kinds of services were being offered by whom in our colleges and universities and whether things had changed dramatically in the years since Centra's survey (Centra, 1976). Finally, we had never had a decent mailing list of "development" practitioners, yet we claimed to be committed to putting such folks in touch with each other.

In mid-1984, we mailed a letter to the chief academic officers of the 1,588 four-year (or more) colleges and universities in the U.S. asking them to send us the names and addresses of people at their institutions who directed or coordinated ". . . what are typically called faculty development, instructional development, or teaching improvement programs or activities." About 1,200 responded to that letter or to a subsequent prompt; 450 indicated that they didn't have any formal program; the remaining 750 sent us the names of nearly 1000 coordinators, directors, committee chairs, or administrators.

We asked those 1,000 people to complete a 47-item questionnaire adapted from Centra's (1976) earlier survey. The questionnaire listed 40 different activities in five categories:

workshops and seminars; assessment practices; individual consultation; grants, leaves, and exchanges; and other practices. (Table 2 lists the 40 activities.) We asked people to check those activities that had been generally available to their faculties within the most recent 12-18 months. The questionnaire also asked who was responsible for planning and coordinating such services, how their current investment in faculty development compared to that of three years ago, and for some demographic information. Unlike Centra's survey, POD's did not ask for estimates of the extent of participation or degree of effectiveness.

We received about 800 completed questionnaires from 650 different institutions after mailings in the spring and fall of 1985. We combined multiple returns from individual institutions, discarded incomplete questionnaires, and excluded the few from two-year colleges. We then had 630 usable responses, a coordinator response rate of about 79%. Table 1 describes the sample of respondents by region, institutional type, enrollment, and whether public or private. We have completed questionnaires from half of the four-year colleges, universities, and professional schools in the Southeast, Midwest, and West. Perhaps because of a high proportion of very small schools in the Northeast, we have responses from only 38% of the schools in that region.

The responses to survey questions about responsibility for and relative investment in services suggest that the "faculty development movement" is neither dead nor even in decline. Ten years ago, 41% of the 408 four-year colleges and universities responding to Centra's survey claimed " . . . an on-campus person or unit(s) for faculty development or instructional improvement . . . " (1976, p. 34); 44% claimed such a person or unit in 1985. Moreover, 66% of the 1985 respondents indicated that their institutions' current investment in faculty, instructional, and professional development was much or somewhat greater than it had been three years earlier; only 9% rated their relative investment as somewhat or much less now. Although we can all name centers and programs that have been shut down or dramatically scaled back, responses to the POD survey suggest that more programs are starting up than closing down. We can't know, of course, what the survival rate will be for current programs (half were created since 1981), but we have no evidence here to suggest faculty development is dying.

TABLE 1

Survey Questionnaire Respondents by Region, Enrollment, Public vs. Private, and Institutional Type

Region and institutional type	Under 1,000 pub	Under 1,000 prv	1,000–2,500 pub	1,000–2,500 prv	2,500–5,000 pub	2,500–5,000 prv	5,000–10,000 pub	5,000–10,000 prv	10,000–20,000 pub	10,000–20,000 prv	Over 20,000 pub	Over 20,000 prv	All pub	All prv	All all
Northeast															
Four-year	2	31	5	44	10	10	9	2	5	1	0	0	31	88	119
University	0	0	0	3	0	4	2	5	6	2	3	2	11	16	27
Professional	2	7	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	9	11
all NE	4	38	5	49	10	14	11	7	11	3	3	2	44	113	157
Southeast															
Four-year	2	38	8	33	15	2	8	1	4	1	0	0	37	75	112
University	0	0	1	0	4	1	5	1	11	0	7	0	28	2	30
Professional	2	5	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	6	6	12
all SE	4	43	11	34	20	3	13	2	16	1	7	0	71	83	154
Midwest															
Four-year	2	64	6	48	10	7	10	1	5	0	0	0	33	120	153
University	0	2	1	0	0	1	4	5	11	2	11	0	27	10	37
Professional	1	11	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	13	15
all MW	3	77	8	50	10	8	14	6	16	2	11	0	62	143	205
West															
Four-year	1	18	5	19	8	3	5	0	6	0	1	0	26	40	66
University	0	2	0	1	3	1	5	2	11	2	11	1	30	9	39
Professional	0	7	0	1	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	9
all W	1	27	5	21	11	4	11	2	17	2	12	1	57	57	114
All															
Four-year	7	151	24	144	43	22	32	4	20	2	1	0	127	323	450
University	0	4	2	4	7	7	16	13	39	6	32	3	96	37	133
Professional	5	30	3	6	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	11	36	47
combined	12	185	29	154	51	29	49	17	60	8	33	3	234	396	630

Note. Northeast includes CT, DC, DE, MA, MD, ME, NH, NJ, NY, PA, RI, VT; Southeast--AL, AR, FL, GA, KY, LA, MS, NC, PR, SC, TN, VA, WV; Midwest--IA, IL, IN, KS, MI, MN, MO, ND, NE, OH, OK, SD, WI; the West--AK, AZ, CA, CO, HI, ID, MT, NM, NV, OR, TX, UT, WA, WY.

Tables 2-8 provide information about the activities offered to faculty in responding institutions. Table 2 reports the percentages of institutions that offered each of the services or activities within the preceding 18 months. It shows, for example, that student ratings of instruction were available on more than 95% of these campuses, although under half provided individual help from trained consultants in interpreting such ratings. Tables 3-8 report the median number of faculty development practices in each category that institutions made available to their faculties. The tables also show how many institutions offered half or more of the opitons listed in the questionnaire. Institutions are sorted by geographic region, type, and enrollment in the tables.

It's apparent that the most popular category of practices is the traditional one of grants, awards, leaves, and exchanges (Table 6). Individual consultation services (Table 5) are available at the fewest number of institutions. Regional differences are not dramatic, but there seems to be more variety in services as one moves west (Tables 3-8). Not surprisingly, larger institutions—especially universities—offer a greater variety of services than smaller ones. Tables 2-8 present the findings in considerable detail because information about faculty development practices in particular kinds of settings is likely to be of more interest than sweeping generalizations.

We were also curious about who was responsible for coordinating faculty development practices on these campuses. There were faculty development committees at 62% of the schools (also true in 1976), but they apparently serve advisory roles. Committees actually coordinated or provided services in only 14% of the institutions. Committees shared reponsibility with an administrator at 4% of the schools. Fourteen percent of the institutions had centers or programs, and another 14% had coordinators or directors of faculty development. Most typically, however, a dean or other administrator had responsibility for faculty development as one of his or her several duties. Predictably, institutions with a center or designated coordinator offered the most services; fewest services were available on campuses where faculty development was one among many of an adminstrator's responsibilities.

TABLE 2

Percentages of Private and Public Four-year Colleges, Universities, and Professional Schools That Offer Various Faculty Development Services

Faculty development practices	Colleges		Universities		Professional		All	
	prv (323)	pub (127)	prv (37)	pub (96)	prv (36)	pub (11)	prv (396)	pub (234)
Workshops or seminars on								
1) various methods or techniques of instruction	61	61	62	73	47	64	60	66
2) course or curricular planning	38	24	30	41	39	55	38	32
3) testing and evaluating student performance	32	29	27	52	50	64	33	40
4) academic advising and counseling skills	62	57	57	42	33	27	59	50
5) research and scholarship skills	16	34	32	45	33	45	19	39
6) improving the management of departmental operations	19	28	27	35	13	18	19	31
7) general issues or trends in higher education (e.g., competency testing, general education)	39	40	27	40	31	9	37	38
8) personal development (e.g., improving interpersonal skills, values clarification, career planning)	26	29	16	40	31	18	25	33
9) understanding college students (e.g., learning styles, developmental patterns)	40	31	22	46	11	27	35	37
10) theories and principles of instruction	29	28	22	46	25	45	28	36

TABLE 2 Continued

Faculty development practices	Colleges prv	Colleges pub	Universities prv	Universities pub	Professional prv	Professional pub	All prv	All pub
Resources available to faculty for assessing and improving their teaching								
1) student ratings of instruction	97	96	100	96	97	91	97	96
2) classroom observation by peers	66	65	68	61	56	64	65	64
3) review of course materials by peers	53	59	51	52	56	55	53	56
4) systematic self-assessment techniques	39	36	27	30	42	45	38	34
5) consultation about teaching from trained colleagues or other instructional resource people	43	45	57	64	47	73	45	54
6) videotaping and critique of classroom instruction	43	50	49	69	44	73	44	59
Individual help from trained consultants available to faculty								
1) interpreting student ratings of instruction	28	32	43	60	31	82	30	46
2) course planning or development	29	32	41	52	39	91	31	43
3) constructing tests or evaluating student performance	19	28	32	58	33	82	21	43
4) developing teaching skills (e.g., asking questions, lecturing)	33	32	38	60	44	73	34	45
5) use of instructional technology (e.g., audiovisual aids, computer-assisted instruction)	52	60	68	75	42	64	53	66
6) career goals and other personal issues	16	17	16	25	19	9	16	20
7) working effectively with or within organizations (e.g., committees, departments)	14	12	22	21	17	27	15	16

TABLE 2–Continued

Faculty development practices	Colleges prv	Colleges pub	Universities prv	Universities pub	Professional prv	Professional pub	All prv	All pub
Grants or awards, leaves, exchanges								
1) grants for faculty members developing new or different approaches to courses or teaching	64	74	49	72	33	36	60	71
2) faculty exchange program with other institutions	29	61	43	58	28	27	30	58
3) sabbatical leaves with at least half salary	78	83	78	83	78	73	78	83
4) a policy of unpaid leaves covering educational or development purposes	68	78	62	71	36	64	65	74
5) a lighter than normal teaching load for first year faculty	19	17	27	30	39	18	21	23
6) temporary teaching load reductions to work on new course, major course revision, or research area	54	69	70	70	44	36	55	68
7) travel grants to refresh or update knowledge in a particular field	59	65	62	65	42	27	58	63
8) travel funds available for attending professional conferences	93	94	92	94	83	82	92	93
9) summer grants for project to improve instruction or courses	64	59	68	63	31	18	61	59

TABLE 2–Continued

Faculty development practices	Colleges prv	Colleges pub	Universities prv	Universities pub	Professional prv	Professional pub	All prv	All pub
Other practices								
1) special professional library readily accessible to faculty concerned with instructional methodology, teaching skills, psychology of learning, and similar topics	33	40	38	48	44	73	35	45
2) annual awards to faculty for excellence in teaching	50	72	81	91	44	100	53	81
3) professional and personal development plan (often called "growth contracts") for individual faculty members	29	24	22	23	17	18	28	23
4) circulation of newsletter, articles, etc. that are pertinent to teaching improvement or faculty development	49	36	32	56	42	45	47	45
5) a specific calendar period set aside for professional development	26	19	14	11	25	0	24	15
6) a visiting scholars program that brings people to the campus for short or long periods of time	46	57	51	73	58	55	47	63
7) a periodic review of all faculty members, whether tenured or not	76	80	68	77	50	55	72	78
8) a campus committee on faculty development	67	61	51	58	53	9	64	58

TABLE 3

Summary by Region, Institutional Type, and Enrollment of the Median Number of 10 Faculty Development Related Topics Treated in Workshops or Seminars Within Preceding 18 Months, and the Number of Institutions Which Treated Half or More of the Topics

Region and institutional type	Under 2,500			2,500-5,000			5,000-10,000			Over 10,000			All		
	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4
Northeast															
Four-year	82	3.0	20	20	3.0	4	11	3.0	3	6	4.5	3	119	3.0	30
University	3	2.0	0	4	2.0	0	7	3.0	0	13	6.0	8	27	3.0	8
Professional	11	1.0	2	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	11	1.0	2
all NE	96	3.0	22	24	3.0	4	18	3.0	3	19	5.0	11	157	3.0	40
Southeast															
Four-year	81	3.0	20	17	2.0	4	9	4.0	3	5	3.0	1	112	3.0	28
University	1	-	1	5	1.0	1	6	5.5	4	18	5.0	11	30	5.0	17
Professional	10	3.5	2	1	-	1	0	-	0	1	-	0	12	3.5	3
all SE	92	3.0	23	23	2.0	6	15	4.0	7	24	4.5	12	154	3.0	48
Midwest															
Four-year	120	4.0	48	17	4.0	5	11	6.0	6	5	5.0	3	153	4.0	62
University	3	2.0	1	1	-	0	9	5.0	4	24	5.0	12	37	5.0	17
Professional	15	3.5	5	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	15	3.5	5
all MW	138	4.0	54	18	4.0	5	20	5.5	10	29	5.0	15	205	4.0	84
West															
Four-year	43	4.0	16	11	5.0	6	5	5.0	3	7	5.0	4	66	4.0	29
University	3	4.0	1	4	2.0	0	7	4.5	3	25	5.0	17	39	5.0	21
Professional	8	2.5	2	0	-	0	1	-	0	0	-	0	9	2.0	2
all W	54	4.0	19	15	3.5	6	13	4.5	6	32	5.0	21	114	4.0	52
All															
Four-year	326	4.0	104	65	3.0	19	36	4.0	15	23	4.5	11	450	4.0	149
University	10	3.0	3	14	2.0	1	29	4.0	11	80	5.0	48	133	5.0	63
Professional	44	3.0	11	1	-	1	1	-	0	1	-	0	47	3.0	12
combined	380	4.0	118	80	3.0	21	66	4.0	26	104	5.0	59	630	4.0	224

TABLE 4

Summary by Region, Institutional Type, and Enrollment of the Median Number of Six Teaching Evaluation and Critiquing Resources Generally Available to Faculty Within Preceding 18 Months, and the Number of Institutions Which Offered Half or More of Those Resources

Region and institutional type	Under 2,500			2,500–5,000			5,000–10,000			Over 10,000			All		
	N	Mdn	>3	N	Mdn	>3	N	Mdn	>3	N	Mdn	>3	N	Mdn	>3
Northeast															
Four-year	82	3.0	34	20	4.0	11	11	4.0	8	6	4.5	5	119	3.0	58
University	3	3.0	1	4	3.5	2	7	4.0	4	13	4.0	7	27	4.0	14
Professional	11	3.0	3	0	–	0	0	–	0	0	–	0	11	3.0	3
all NE	96	3.0	38	24	4.0	13	18	4.0	12	19	4.0	12	157	3.0	75
Southeast															
Four-year	81	3.0	27	17	3.0	5	9	2.0	1	5	4.0	3	112	3.0	36
University	1	–	1	5	2.0	0	6	3.0	3	18	4.0	10	30	3.0	14
Professional	10	3.0	4	1	–	1	0	–	0	1	–	1	12	3.5	6
all SE	92	3.0	32	23	3.0	6	15	2.0	4	24	4.0	14	154	3.0	56
Midwest															
Four-year	120	4.0	67	17	3.0	7	11	5.0	8	5	3.0	2	153	4.0	84
University	3	3.5	1	1	–	1	9	3.0	3	24	4.0	13	37	3.5	18
Professional	15	4.0	9	0	–	0	0	–	0	0	–	0	15	4.0	9
all MW	138	4.0	77	18	3.0	8	20	4.0	11	29	4.0	15	205	4.0	111
West															
Four-year	43	3.0	19	11	3.0	5	5	4.0	4	7	4.0	4	66	3.0	32
University	3	2.0	1	4	2.5	0	7	3.0	3	25	4.0	16	39	4.0	20
Professional	8	3.0	2	0	–	0	1	–	0	0	–	0	9	3.0	2
all W	54	3.0	22	15	3.0	5	13	4.0	7	32	4.0	20	114	3.0	54
All															
Four-year	326	3.0	147	65	3.0	28	36	4.0	21	23	4.0	14	450	3.0	210
University	10	3.0	4	14	3.0	3	29	3.0	13	80	4.0	46	133	3.5	66
Professional	44	3.0	18	1	–	1	1	–	0	1	–	1	47	3.0	20
combined	380	3.0	169	80	3.0	32	66	4.0	34	104	4.0	61	630	3.0	296

TABLE 5

Summary by Region, Institutional Type, and Enrollment of the Median Number of Seven Individual Consultation Services Generally Available to Faculty Within Preceding 18 Months, and the Number of Institutions Which Offered Half or More of Those Services

Region and institutional type	Under 2,500			2,500–5,000			5,000–10,000			Over 10,000			All		
	N	Mdn	>3	N	Mdn	>3	N	Mdn	>3	N	Mdn	>3	N	Mdn	>3
Northeast															
Four-year	82	1.0	9	20	1.0	5	11	1.0	3	6	3.0	2	119	1.0	19
University	3	0.0	0	4	1.0	0	7	1.0	2	13	5.0	10	27	2.0	12
Professional	11	2.0	3	0	–	0	0	–	0	0	–	0	11	2.0	3
all NE	96	1.0	12	24	1.0	5	18	1.0	5	19	5.0	12	157	1.0	34
Southeast															
Four-year	81	1.0	10	17	2.0	4	9	2.0	2	5	5.0	3	112	1.0	19
University	1	–	1	5	0.0	1	6	5.0	3	18	4.0	11	30	4.0	16
Professional	10	4.5	7	1	–	1	0	–	0	1	–	1	12	5.0	9
all SE	92	1.0	18	23	2.0	6	15	2.0	5	24	4.0	15	154	2.0	44
Midwest															
Four-year	120	3.0	32	17	2.5	2	11	4.0	7	5	4.0	2	153	3.0	43
University	3	1.5	0	1	–	1	9	4.5	4	24	5.0	16	37	5.0	21
Professional	15	5.5	5	0	–	0	0	–	0	0	–	0	15	5.5	5
all MW	138	3.0	37	18	3.0	3	20	4.0	11	29	5.0	18	205	3.0	69
West															
Four-year	43	2.0	6	11	3.5	4	5	4.0	4	7	3.5	2	66	3.0	16
University	3	3.0	0	4	1.0	0	7	3.0	1	25	4.0	17	39	4.0	18
Professional	8	2.5	2	0	–	0	1	–	0	0	–	0	9	2.5	2
all W	54	2.0	8	15	3.0	4	13	4.0	5	32	4.0	19	114	3.0	36
All															
Four-year	326	2.0	57	65	2.0	15	36	3.0	16	23	3.0	9	450	2.0	97
University	10	1.5	1	14	1.0	2	29	3.0	10	80	5.0	54	133	4.0	67
Professional	44	3.0	17	1	–	1	1	–	0	1	–	1	47	4.0	19
combined	380	2.0	75	80	2.0	18	66	3.0	26	104	5.0	64	630	2.0	183

TABLE 6

Summary by Region, Institutional Type, and Enrollment of the Median Number of Nine Teaching Grant, Award, Leave, or Exchange Programs Generally Available to Faculty Within Preceding 18 Months, and the Number of Institutions Offering Half or More of Them

Region and institutional type	Under 2,500			2,500–5,000			5,000–10,000			Over 10,000			All		
	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4
Northeast															
Four-year	82	6.0	56	20	7.5	17	11	8.0	10	6	7.5	6	119	6.0	89
University	3	8.0	3	4	5.5	4	7	4.0	3	13	7.0	11	27	6.0	21
Professional	11	3.0	2	0	–	0	0	–	0	0	–	0	11	3.0	2
all NE	96	5.0	61	24	7.0	21	18	6.0	13	19	7.0	17	157	6.0	112
Southeast															
Four-year	81	5.0	55	17	6.0	11	9	4.0	4	5	7.0	4	112	5.0	74
University	1	–	0	5	5.0	3	6	5.5	4	18	7.0	15	30	6.0	22
Professional	10	4.0	5	1	–	1	0	–	0	1	–	1	12	5.0	7
all SE	92	5.0	60	23	6.0	15	15	5.0	8	24	7.0	20	154	5.0	103
Midwest															
Four-year	120	6.0	82	17	6.0	15	11	6.0	10	5	6.0	4	153	6.0	111
University	3	3.0	1	1	–	0	9	7.0	8	24	6.0	21	37	7.0	30
Professional	15	4.0	6	0	–	0	0	–	0	0	–	0	15	4.0	6
all MW	138	6.0	89	18	6.0	15	20	7.0	18	29	6.0	25	205	6.0	147
West															
Four-year	43	5.0	27	11	7.0	8	5	7.0	5	7	6.0	7	66	6.0	47
University	3	4.0	0	4	6.5	3	7	5.0	4	25	7.0	19	39	6.0	26
Professional	8	5.0	5	0	–	0	1	–	0	0	–	0	9	5.0	5
all W	54	5.0	32	15	7.0	11	13	5.0	9	32	7.0	26	114	6.0	78
All															
Four-year	326	5.0	220	65	6.0	51	36	6.5	29	23	6.0	21	450	6.0	321
University	10	4.0	4	14	5.5	10	29	5.0	19	80	7.0	66	133	6.0	99
Professional	44	4.0	18	1	–	1	1	–	0	1	–	1	47	4.0	20
combined	380	5.0	242	80	6.0	62	66	6.0	48	104	7.0	88	630	6.0	440

TABLE 7

Survey by Region, Institutional Type, and Enrollment of the Median Number of Eight Miscellaneous Faculty Development Related Practices Generally Available Within Preceding 18 Months, and the Number of Institutions Which Offered Half or More of Those Practices

Region and institutional type	Under 2,500			2,500-5,000			5,000-10,000			Over 10,000			All		
	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4	N	Mdn	>4
Northeast															
Four-year	82	3.0	21	20	3.0	5	11	5.0	6	6	4.5	3	119	4.0	35
University	3	2.0	1	4	2.5	1	7	3.0	1	13	4.0	5	27	4.0	8
Professional	11	2.0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	11	2.0	0
all NE	96	3.0	22	24	3.0	6	18	4.0	7	19	4.0	8	157	4.0	43
Southeast															
Four-year	81	4.0	25	17	3.0	3	9	5.0	5	5	4.0	2	112	4.0	35
University	1	-	0	5	2.0	0	6	5.0	4	18	5.0	11	30	4.5	15
Professional	10	3.5	4	1	-	1	0	-	0	1	-	0	12	4.0	5
all SE	92	4.0	29	23	3.0	4	15	5.0	9	24	5.0	13	154	4.0	55
Midwest															
Four-year	120	4.0	50	17	4.0	6	11	5.0	7	5	3.0	2	153	4.0	65
University	3	2.0	0	1	-	0	9	5.0	6	24	4.0	8	37	4.0	14
Professional	15	4.0	6	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	15	4.0	6
all MW	138	4.0	56	18	4.0	6	20	5.0	13	29	4.0	10	205	4.0	85
West															
Four-year	43	3.0	11	11	5.0	7	5	3.0	0	7	4.0	3	66	4.0	21
University	3	2.0	1	4	3.5	0	7	4.0	2	25	5.0	16	39	4.5	19
Professional	8	2.5	1	0	-	0	1	-	0	0	-	0	9	2.0	1
all W	54	3.0	13	15	4.0	7	13	3.5	2	32	5.0	19	114	4.0	41
All															
Four-year	326	4.0	107	65	4.0	21	36	4.5	18	23	4.0	10	450	4.0	156
University	10	2.0	2	14	2.0	1	29	4.0	13	80	5.0	40	133	4.0	56
Professional	44	3.0	11	1	-	1	1	-	0	1	-	0	47	3.0	12
combined	380	4.0	120	80	4.0	23	66	4.0	31	104	4.0	50	630	4.0	224

TABLE 8

Summary by Region, Institutional Type, and Enrollment of the Median Number of 41 Faculty Development Programs and Activities Generally Available to Faculty Within Preceding 18 Months, and the Number of Institutions Which Offered Half or More of Those Services

Region and institutional type	Under 2,500			2,500-5,000			5,000-10,000			Over 10,000			All		
	N	Mdn	>20	N	Mdn	>20	N	Mdn	>20	N	Mdn	>20	N	Mdn	>20
Northeast															
Four-year	82	16.0	18	20	19.0	7	11	19.0	5	6	24.5	4	119	17.0	34
University	3	17.0	0	4	15.5	1	7	16.0	1	13	24.0	10	27	18.0	12
Professional	11	13.0	1	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	11	13.0	1
all NE	96	16.0	19	24	18.5	8	18	18.0	6	19	24.0	14	157	17.0	47
Southeast															
Four-year	81	17.0	18	17	17.0	4	9	16.0	3	5	22.0	3	112	17.0	28
University	1	-	1	5	12.0	0	6	25.0	4	18	23.0	12	30	22.0	17
Professional	10	18.0	3	1	-	1	0	-	0	1	-	1	12	19.5	5
all SE	92	17.0	22	23	16.0	5	15	19.0	7	24	22.5	16	154	18.0	50
Midwest															
Four-year	120	19.0	54	17	19.0	7	11	23.0	9	5	18.0	2	153	19.0	72
University	3	13.0	0	1	-	0	9	20.0	4	24	21.5	13	37	20.0	17
Professional	15	16.0	7	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	15	16.0	7
all MW	138	18.5	61	18	18.0	7	20	23.0	13	29	21.0	15	205	19.0	96
West															
Four-year	43	16.0	15	11	22.0	7	5	24.0	4	7	21.0	4	66	19.0	30
University	3	14.0	1	4	15.5	0	7	18.0	3	25	25.0	20	39	21.0	24
Professional	8	15.0	1	0	-	0	1	-	0	0	-	0	9	15.0	1
all W	54	16.0	17	15	20.0	7	13	22.0	7	32	22.0	24	114	20.0	55
All															
Four-year	326	17.0	105	65	18.0	25	36	21.5	21	23	22.0	13	450	18.0	164
University	10	15.0	2	14	15.0	1	29	18.0	12	80	23.0	55	133	21.0	70
Professional	44	15.0	12	1	-	1	1	-	0	1	-	1	47	15.0	14
combined	380	17.0	119	80	17.0	27	66	20.5	33	104	23.0	69	630	18.0	248

What we have, then, is evidence that the faculty development movement has survived the budget cuts and shifting interest of recent years, even if many specific programs have not. Probably half or more of our four-year colleges, universities, and professional schools offer some formal faculty development, instructional development, and/or teaching improvement services. Those activities are most often coordinated by a committee, an administrator whose primary responsibilities lie elsewhere, or a committee and administrator working together. We don't know many details (e.g., Are workshops one hour, one day, one week? Are consultations "one shot" or "longterm"?) Nor do we know who participates, what really works, what's just window dressing. However, we do have an extensive mailing list of those responsible for faculty development activities, and it is available to those who might seek answers to such questions.

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